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ABSTRACT

The experiences and results of the Urban/Rural School Development Program, a federally-sponsored effort to improve education in poor communities, are reviewed in this study. The thrust of the program was to involve community members and school staff from 25 extremely poor neighborhoods in equal decision making focused on the use of staff development to improve the quality of education. Topics discussed in the twelve articles are: (1) the school-community council process, including participant views and operating procedures; (2) improving the process by which school and community members relate together to make educational decisions; (3) the substance of teacher education, and how school-community councils improve the process of inservice education; (4) the effects of the program on student achievement; (5) directions for the future in educational staff development; and (6) the impact of the program on current federal legislation. Each of these focuses on the lessons to be learned from the program. The following evaluative conclusions are also offered: school-community councils can achieve parity in structure and operation in making decisions about inservice education; the work of such councils has a positive effect on morale in the district, improves the variety and quality of inservice education, and, where evidence is available, leads to better student learning; and the communities are trying to carry on, without federal support, and to incorporate the experimental work into their regular school programs. (DS)

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INVOLVEMENT: A STUDY OF SHARED GOVERNANCE OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

Prepared by the
Urban/Rural School Development Program
Leadership Training Institute
Center for Educational Research at Stanford
Stanford University School of Education

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for the
U.S. Office of Education

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

This report is dedicated to the memory of Rex Howard

During most of the life of the Urban/Rural program, Rex was the U.S. Office of Education official who was responsible for the coordination of the program.

With love, sensitivity, humor, and determination, he was a living embodiment of the social and personal commitments which undergirded Public Law 90-35.

Urban/Rural combined the American commitment to democracy with the corollary dedication to social justice. These values live in law and in people. They glowed inside Rex Howard.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The people who served on the Urban/Rural Councils and Staffs created the human events documented on these pages. The boards of education, teachers, school administrators, and citizens of their communities contributed support and participated in the multifaceted activities which made up the attempt to improve the communities and schools of the urban and rural poor. In addition, they cooperated remarkably with the documentation of their efforts, opening their meetings and activities to observation and evaluation.

Over the history of the Urban/Rural program, several devoted and imaginative federal officials generated the guidelines to carry out the law and oversaw the program. Rex Howard was mentioned in the dedication. Also in Washington, John Lindea, William Smith, Thomas Carter, and Allen Schmieder were heavily involved at one stage or another. Regionally, Esther Nichols, Eileen Lehman, James Roberts, Isaac Wilder, and Richard Nabor worked with projects and Washington officials to help each Urban/Rural site develop an understanding of the legislative intent and the executive regulations developed to ensure implementation of the law.

The Stanford Urban/Rural Leadership Institute was established in 1970, a year prior to the funding of Urban/Rural projects. The LTI was to assist in developing governing groups that would represent parity between teachers and community participants in local projects. It also had the task of helping such groups secure technical assistance.

Professors Robert Hess and Barbara Hatton organized the LTI to facilitate these goals. The LTI employed resources in education, communication, behavioral and social sciences in developing on-site services. Relationships with local projects were established through Regional Coordinators and Field Facilitators--locally-based consultants. Regional Coordinators during this phase of the project were Charles Warfield, James Terry, Ermon Hogan, Ted Carpenter, Luis Diaz DeLeon, James Branscome, and Jack Kirkland. Marie Fielder served as Training Consultant.

Later, the LTI was directed by Professor Robert N. Bush of Stanford and R. Pete Mesa, presently Superintendent of the Milpitas (California) Unified School District. Pete Mesa possessed exceptional skills as a consultant and developed an organization capable of providing technical assistance directly from Stanford. Dennis Bixler, Mary Nur, Michael Honda, Angie Garcia, Bob Newby, Hank Resnick, and Patricia Phelan worked with Mesa to develop the program of technical assistance.

From 1974 to 1978 a visiting scholar at Stanford, Bruce R. Joyce of Columbia University and Booksend Laboratories, organized the documentation/evaluation effort which is reported here. Drs. Barbara Cannon, Bert Manriquez, and Muata Weusi-Puryear contributed considerably to the documentation.

THE STAFF

Professors Kenneth Howey of the University of Minnesota, Sam J. Yarger of Syracuse University, and Robert N. Bush of Stanford University contributed substantially to the writing of this report, as did Lorenzo Reid of Washington, D.C., and Les Birdsall of Los Angeles. Mary Nur, Dennis Bixler, and Patricia Phelan arranged for much of the data collection. Barbara Cannon and Bert Manriquez maintained data collection in essential areas.

Muata Weusi-Puryear, Karen Harbeck, and Kathleen McNair organized and analyzed the data. Lana Pipes of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education and Karen Harbeck edited the report.

Elinore Brown managed the manuscript.

Bruce R. Joyce of Booksend Laboratories created the documentation/evaluation design and managed the preparation of the report.

The ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education provided editorial and distribution services for this report. Lana Pipes and Karl Massanari were sensitive and efficient. Drs. Harold Mitzel, Keith Goldhammer, Fred MacDonald, and Joel Burdin provided consistent and solid editorial reaction.

THE LAW

The legislation authorizing the Urban/Rural School Development Program was in the tradition of "Great Society" legislation. It combined an intent to improve educational and economic opportunity for the children of the poor with provisions for increasing the participation of local citizens in decisions affecting their lives and those of their children. Thus, it is part of the effort to redefine and extend the concept of democracy in social life, so that more persons are included in increasingly complex areas of decision making.

PREFACE

In summer 1977, there drew to a close a little-noticed six-year federal government experiment for improving education in poor communities. It represented another effort to try to ensure that the riches of society are shared more widely and that the voices of community members are heard in the making of decisions affecting their welfare.

As concern mounted during the 1960s, federal programs began to be directed toward the schools, chosen as the instrument to help break the cycle of poverty that continues to grip those trapped in the slums of the inner cities and isolated rural communities. Almost as these programs were initiated, complaints arose about two limiting features:

1. The programs typically operated through traditional channels--city councils, local boards of education, and the office of the school superintendent.

2. The programs were directed in ways that Washington thought up--not along lines that local community people generated.

These two complaints caused great concern on the part of some sensitive and thoughtful leaders of the government bureaucracy in Washington, D.C. They speculated: What would happen if the local people were given the largest possible latitude? What would happen if program and fiscal control were given directly to the people who were most in need and to those who were directly operating the education institutions? What would happen if teachers in classrooms and the economically poor parents of the children in the school assessed their own needs and did what they thought would most improve education in their communities? Don Davies, then Associate Commissioner of Education in charge of Educational Personnel Development, and some of his colleagues--Bill Smith, John Lindia, Tom Carter, and the late Rex Howard--created a Task Force to explore possible answers to these provocative questions. They travelled to various poor communities in urban and rural areas across the country and talked to the people about their needs and their frustrations.

In 1970 they formulated guidelines that would award money in a new way. It would be controlled and spent by teachers and parents to build personnel development programs for promoting the kind of sensitivity and competence in the teaching staff that would make schools more responsive to the children's needs. In summer 1971, the Urban/Rural School Development Program was launched in 25 of the nation's poorest communities, where children were achieving even lower than expected. A Leadership Training Institute was established at Stanford University to deliver technical assistance to those projects.

The program made it possible to gather evidence about some urgent questions. Would it be possible to do things differently? Would those with power share it with others without damaging results? What would happen when laymen were given parity in decision making about "professional" matters? Would better teacher training result? What would be the effect on morale, on school-community relations, and on the learning of children?

The six years are now over--what happened? What were the lessons learned from the experience that may be helpful to those who continue to wage war on poverty through education? This report attempts to answer those questions.

MAIN CONCLUSIONS

Several dominant conclusions stand out:

1. School-Community Councils, with approximately equal representation of school officials--mainly teachers--and community people, can be established and can achieve parity in structure and operation in making decisions about inservice education. (For details, see Chapter Four.)

2. The work of such councils, through shared decision making by the main parties affected, has a positive effect on morale in the district; improves the variety, quantity, and quality of inservice education; and, where the evidence is available, leads to better learning of students. (For details, see Chapters Four, Five, and Eight.)

3. The communities, after six years and with the end of federal support, are trying to carry on and to incorporate the experimental work into their regular school programs. For instance, the results of Urban/Rural are being used to help shape new federal programs (notably the 1978 five-year cycle of Teacher Corps and the Teacher Centers Program) and significant state legislation (notably California's new comprehensive school improvement program).

These positive results did not occur overnight and without struggle. The results were not always even. Losses followed gains. Some communities were more successful than others. This model is no panacea for overcoming poverty and the many ills that beset the schools. Yet it has demonstrated that disenfranchised poor people can be given a larger voice in how their schools are run with favorable, not dire, results. Some of the traditional blocks to effective inservice education have been overcome and some new patterns have been invented. Parents, children, and teachers have learned a new appreciation of their unique cultural backgrounds. Schools have learned new and more effective ways of obtaining training from institutions of higher education. They have become better consumers of the services offered by colleges. Teachers and schools have moved closer to parents and both have learned how to cooperate better in the education of children.

The School-Community Council is the powerful new local engine that Urban/Rural has been developing. Councils were not organized quickly or smoothly, but they evolved into functioning organizations. Chapter Two has been written to provide concrete suggestions of what we learned about getting School-Community Councils operating; we offer these suggestions to those who would like to embark on a similar route--one we believe is worth travelling. Even though the route has its pitfalls and all is not smoothly paved, the experiences of the participants, as detailed in Chapter Three, are fundamentally positive.

THE NAGGING QUESTION

As the Urban/Rural program began to draw to a close, and as we began to see some of the positive results, the nagging question arose: "How does it look compared with other places that did not have the benefit of the Urban/Rural experience and dollars?" Three comprehensive questionnaires were developed in 1976--one for school officials (teachers, administrators, and other specialists), one for parents, and one for IHE personnel. These were given to a sample of school and community people in California, Georgia, and Michigan, as well as in the 25 Urban/Rural sites. A brief report of the results appears in Chapters Six and Seven. The main conclusions from these data are that Urban/Rural looks better than the national picture in several ways and not just because of dollars spent. It may be that Urban/Rural represents what the organizational development theorists have been referring to as structural change in how to organize and operate the system.

Sometimes these changes do require additional dollars. Many school districts are now budgeting hard dollars for inservice education. If these were made available through new structures--such as School-Community Councils--the results might be greater than if they were expended in traditional ways.

THE TROUBLESOME PROBLEM OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

"Yes, but what about student achievement? Do the kids learn anything? All this experimentation may be OK, but is learning improved?" Sooner or later, almost everyone, from the halls of Congress to the local PTA, raises "the bottom line" question, as it has been called. It has assumed new prominence and urgency with the report of the decline in test scores across the country. The specific mandate of Urban/Rural was not directed toward the improvement of test scores, although a concern about achievement in economically poor school districts motivated the effort. The main and specific target in Urban/Rural was greater community voice, more participation between school and community, and improved inservice teacher education programs. Also, it was hoped that these changes would result in improved education for children. Student achievement takes many forms and can be viewed in various ways--but when the dust settles, standardized test scores usually emerge as the main criteria.

Although these tests do not take into account motivation or self-concept, and may not even be related to what has been emphasized in the curriculum, nevertheless, as the Urban/Rural Program drew to a close, we undertook to see what evidence there might be about student achievement. This effort is detailed in Chapter Eight. The design for this analysis, we believe, is imaginative, honest, and technically competent. The findings are that in Urban/Rural, for the most part, no conclusive answers could be reached because: (a) there were too many contaminating and confounding conditions (such as other federal programs present in the same communities), (b) tests were not given, (c) the results were often not kept even when the tests had been given, and finally, (d) some schools feared to share their results with "outsiders," even when they were available. But when these unfavorable conditions did not prevail--and we found one center where this was the case--then the results of the Urban/Rural experience can

be traced to show positive results in student achievement--a small but significant finding which may be instructive to those who are planning future federal programs and to others, if they want student achievement as an important consideration in their efforts.

SOME SURPRISES

Was anything learned that was not anticipated? Or that was different from what was predicted?

Surprise No. 1

The main surprising lesson is that rural areas are different from urban areas with respect to inservice teacher education. "But wasn't that obvious in the beginning?" Not at all. The pattern of inservice teacher education, as we have known it, and the laments about its inadequacies seemed quite uniform across all populations. But when the figures came in, rural areas were much more productive in providing inservice teacher education than were urban areas, and they had less money. To get school and community together and to provid good decisions that result in effective inservice teacher education is much more difficult to achieve in urban areas than in rural ones. For details and speculation as to why this is so, see Chapter Five. For the policy makers and planners, it may mean that in the future, when experiments are designed, the strategies and the dollars for rural and urban areas will need to be separately considered.

Surprise No. 2

A second surprise to many, with positive consequences, is that a shift in the power structure--to give the disenfranchised and the "less expert" more power--is not dysfunctional as many, especially those who were in control and those who were "expert," predicted. The finding is rather that sharing power increases power. The total power for school improvement is enhanced by bringing hitherto disenfranchised persons into the process. Further, it is demonstrated that the traditional authorities may find a source of legitimacy for their actions that was heretofore lacking.

Surprise No. 3

The "Washington bureaucrats" want to and can be helpful in seeing that congressional mandates are carried out, and that new and improved ways to solve local problems can be found. The negative stereotype about Washington bureaucrats that is pervasive in this country was not true in the Urban/Rural program. In this program, they were imaginative and creative in using discretionary monies at their disposal. They were able to devise new programs that seemed to be responsive to grass roots criticism. Furthermore, they were able to insist that a federal mandate be followed in such a way that the maximum freedom for local initiative was provided. There were significant problems in the early years, but as the program developed the "Washington bureaucrats" became a source of strong leadership. One reason for this surprise in Urban/Rural, we believe, was a new and different organizational structure at the local level, and a different way of

providing technical services. It may be another example in support of the organizational theorist speculation that changes in organizational structure are often a powerful and less expensive way of bringing about change.

Surprise No. 4

Universities are not useless appendages in the field of inservice education. There is a strong current of opinion, especially emanating from teachers through their professional organizations, that the faults of inservice teacher education can be laid mainly at the door of the institutions of higher education and that, in the next decade, they should be largely excluded from decision making and participation. The Urban/Rural experience suggests that this may not be so. Institutions of higher education were not part of the decision-making procedure in Urban/Rural, but when the schools and communities were free to seek training, they drew on the institutions of higher education more heavily than on any other single source, and learned how to ensure that these services were of high quality and related to their needs.

Many more interesting things happened in this federal experiment. We invite your attention to this report, which is a distillation of the six year experience where federal, state, and local governments and private agencies collaborated successfully to improve education in economically impoverished urban and rural communities across the nation.

ROBERT N. BUSH
Director, Leadership Training
Institute
Stanford University

January 1978

HIGHLIGHTS IN BRIEF

. . . . Process was more expensive in urban projects. Rural sites were more productive per dollar in amounts of inservice education produced . . . .

. . . . Sharing power increases power--including the disenfranchised in the decision-making process increased project productivity . . . .

. . . . "Washington bureaucrats" were willing to help local projects on their own terms . . . .

. . . . Community power drew universities into providing on-site services of a kind which is unusual in depth and intensity . . . .

CHAPTER ONE

THE URBAN/RURAL SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM: WHAT IT WAS AND WHAT IT ATTEMPTED

Bruce R. Joyce

In these pages we explore the experiences of the Urban/Rural School Development Program, a federally-sponsored effort to involve community members and school staff from 25 extremely poor neighborhoods in equal decision making focused on the use of staff development to improve the quality of education in those areas. At the core of the Urban/Rural program were school-community councils in which, from 1970 to 1977, lay persons and education professionals labored to analyze educational needs and find the means to help teachers become more vital forces in the lives of their children.

THE SOCIAL INTENT OF THE PROGRAM

The major purpose of the Urban/Rural program was to improve the social process of educational decision making in several ways:

1. By reducing alienation. As Emile Durkheim pointed out nearly 80 years ago, the concentration of persons in large urban areas in Western societies has resulted in feelings of normlessness and rootlessness for many members of the population. The effect has been to alienate persons from their important social institutions. Durkheim called this feeling anomie. It is associated with meaninglessness and helplessness, feelings which legitimize a withdrawal from normal social processes and reduce affiliation with one's fellow man. It was intended in the Urban/Rural program that involvement in social process around education, especially in this case teacher education, would reduce the feelings of alienation for persons whose communities are poor and whose schools appear to have lost the ability to help children become inducted into the society and develop the tools necessary for successful navigation within their complex technology-based society.

2. By increasing efficacy within the social system. Closely related to alienation is a loss of belief in the efficacy of individuals to influence decisions important in their social context. Especially in economically poor communities people feel they are unable to make a difference; the solitary vote of an individual seems miniscule in a social context which includes millions of persons and which appears to create a cycle of poverty and to make even the most basic social transactions increasingly impersonal. It was the intent of this program to generate, in a small way, an involvement in an important area of local decision making in order to increase participants' feelings of efficacy, and to do this in such a way that the processes and products of the program would be carried out within "the system."

3. By increasing the integrativeness with which teachers and community members relate to one another in the determination of staff development

Figure 1.1

URBAN/RURAL SITES
GEOGRAPHIC LOCATIONS

activities. The core of integrativeness is the search for a mutual frame of reference. Through an exchange of ideas, an honest assessment of the needs of community and school, and debates over alternative courses of action, it was intended that the individuals in these local communities reach toward one another and develop the warmth and skills necessary to make common cause.

4. By integrating the reduction in alienation, the increased feelings of efficacy, and an increase in power to produce a greater flow of community energy toward the improvement of education. When citizens feel alienated and ineffective and have few avenues through which to generate ideas and a sense of community with others, energy decreases and social processes become stagnant. It was intended that this stagnation be replaced by social ferment and a positive flow of energy from those who had previously felt separated from one another, powerless to affect social processes, and unable to interact concerning problems of their communities and decisions for improving education.

5. By making local needs the focus of action. In contemporary America many see the education system as impersonal, unresponsive to the needs of their children; it neither accommodates to individual learning styles nor uses curricula rooted in an assessment of conditions in the local community. School boards, while possessing political legitimacy, are viewed as remote from assessment of the actual needs of children.

6. The Urban/Rural School Development Program, then, was an experiment in grassroots democracy whose intent it was to establish a condition of parity between education professionals and community members, with the purpose of generating staff development (inservice teacher and administrator education) activities through collaborative decision making and the assessment of local needs.

Urban/Rural has applied a model for community involvement in staff development in 25 sites across the country for the past six years.

What Were the Sites Like?

Thirteen sites were urban and twelve were rural. The urban sites were concentrated primarily in the northeastern United States, while the rural sites were more scattered throughout the country. Several sites exhibited characteristics of both urban and rural areas.

Seven communities were predominantly Black; four had large populations of persons with Spanish surnames; six were generally White and rural; two were largely Native American communities; and six included broad mixtures of ethnic groups.

Most of the major geographical regions of the country were included (see Figure 1.1), with six sites in the Northeast, seven in the Midwest, five in the Southeast, three in the Southwest, and three in the Plains States or Far West. One site was located in the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico.

In five sites the Urban/Rural services were focused on one single school's staff, community, and student population. The others provided services to a cluster of schools (from two to ten). The schools served

approximately 47,000 students altogether. (The student body of the smallest school was about 300 children, the largest nearly 6,000.) The Urban/Rural schools were staffed by some 2,500 teachers, with a range of 20 to 254 teachers per site. These projects have successfully experimented with a model which depends on mutual decision making by teachers and community members under the guidance of the Board of Education and the local school district officials.

A MODEL FOR COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

At the core of the Urban/Rural concept is a school-community council (SCC), consisting of an equal number of education professionals and community members, whose responsibility it is to make decisions about staff development for a particular local school or for a cluster of schools. Council members are elected by the professional staff of each project school and by members of the community the school serves. The essential concept is one of parity. Structurally, parity means equal representation in decision making. Procedurally, it means equal input from professionals and community members in the determination of staff development activities to improve school practices. Organizationally, it is embedded in the council.

In 1970 and 1971, SCCs were set up in each of the Urban/Rural sites. Each one elected a council chairperson and hired a team manager (project director) as administrator of the project. To varying degrees, the council and team manager employed staff members who were to be responsible for managing implementation of the program (such as resident professors, community coordinators, and curriculum and training specialists).

The Needs Survey

Each council was responsible for conducting a needs survey of the school and the community. This was accomplished in diverse ways--through meetings, questionnaire surveys, studies by outside consultants, and consultations with school administrators. One community employed a network of 300 "outreachers" to ensure broad input through interviews. The needs thus identified were analyzed by the SCC to determine the chief areas in which staff development activities would concentrate.

Translation of Needs into Program

The councils then endeavored to translate the prioritized needs into staff development activities which would further the education of children. Across the country, the needs varied widely, as did the interpretation into programs. Some schools were grappling with integration problems and concentrated on helping teachers to relate more effectively with children and other community members. Others chose specific problems of the schools. In several cases, communities focused on their heritage and generated programs to help teachers and other community members to work with students and parents to develop and to interpret the heritage of the community more effectively. A focus on cultural pluralism was recognized as a general need even in projects which were not embedded in communities characteristically comprised of racial or ethnic minorities.

Implementation

Each of the projects then had to determine what kinds of workshops, courses, and other experiences would be implemented in response to the diverse school-community needs. One Urban/Rural project combined with other community agencies to develop a radio station to help unify the community and make all members more aware of their heritage.* Some projects concentrated heavily on staff development activities, and as many as 300 workshops and other inservice teacher education experiences have been generated by individual projects. Some projects concentrated on the recruitment, training, and utilization of classroom aides. The projects were responsible not only for implementing the programs in communities but for evaluating the programs as they progressed. Sometimes the evaluation was accomplished through survey methods (chiefly interviews and questionnaires); at other times it took the form of assessing pupil achievement with respect to the inservice training which was provided teachers.

Recycling of Needs

As the evaluation process went on, each community was responsible for periodically reassessing its needs, making new determinations about programs, and implementing the new suggestions.

The Local Education Agency: Independence of the Council

The projects were funded through the local education agencies by the U.S. Office of Education; however, decisions about the expenditure of funds were to be made by the councils. Thus, the local education agency was able to maintain control over accounting and budgeting procedures, but the SCC was responsible for program; the team manager reported directly to the council. In most cases, the team manager and council chairperson worked as co-equals in the administration of the projects. Since team managers typically were drawn from professional ranks, and council chairpersons from the local community, this arrangement reinforced the parity concept by providing a formalized council leadership structure which reflected and safeguarded the interests and needs of both education professionals and community members. Based on a conviction that schooling can be improved through cooperatively operated staff development programs, the division of formal leadership affirmed the potential contributions new educational partnerships can make to the inservice teacher education enterprise. While the local education agency was assured of a proper expenditure of funds and reporting, neither school board members nor administrators were in a position to control the decision-making process.

The councils were formed with relative speed, as reported by Terry and Hess, 1975.** It took much longer, however, for SCCs to develop effective

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* A brief history of the Wayne County, Va., project may be found in Chapter 3 of: Don Davies, ed. Schools Where Parents Make a Difference. Boston: Institute for Responsive Education, 1976.

** James V. Terry and Robert D. Hess. "The Urban/Rural School Development Program: An Examination of a Federal Model for Achieving Parity Between Schools and Community." Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University, 1975.

processes. Communities needed to learn how to organize and elect members. Although the education professionals had less difficulty electing their representatives, all council members needed to work together, and it took councils as long as a year or more to achieve process parity. Once parity was achieved, however, councils were able to proceed with an actual equality of decision making, with comfortable input by professionals and community members, a realistic appraisal of the needs of the community and the school, and the design and implementation of programs that could serve them best.

WHAT METHODS WERE USED FOR DOCUMENTATION?

To provide technical assistance and documentation services to the Urban/Rural program, a Leadership Training Institute (LTI) was established at Stanford University in 1970. Throughout the Urban/Rural program a variety of technical assistance services were provided, either by local consultants or by the LTI staff itself.

In the later years of the program the LTI turned its attention to documenting the activities of the projects and to bringing together the lessons learned from the Urban/Rural experience, so as to guide future efforts at involving teachers, community members, and educators in decision making about staff development activities.

The documentation effort had seven components which were integrated to provide a picture of (a) the council processes; (b) the nature of the training programs developed; (c) the attitudes of participants toward themselves, the processes, and the training programs; (d) the extent to which the Urban/Rural projects solved common problems of inservice education; and (e) the effects on pupil learning. The seven major components of the documentation were:

1. The 1975 survey of the participants (see Chapter Three). Over 1,000 persons in the 25 sites responded to a questionnaire designed to determine the views of the participants in the Urban/Rural program about council processes, needs assessments, the determination of objectives, feelings of satisfaction through participation, beliefs about the impact of the projects, and suggestions for how to improve them. Results of this questionnaire survey were analyzed to compare the views of team managers, council chairpersons, council members, teachers in the schools, aides, and others drawn into the schooling process by Urban/Rural, such as students and community members who were not participants in the Urban/Rural projects.

2. Observation of councils (see Chapter Four). Between 1975 and 1977 two observers were located in each Urban/Rural community and trained to record the processes of the councils. The observation system was developed to determine the extent to which community members and teachers communicated with one another, the content of the meetings, and particularly the balance between school and community persons in the decision-making process. The observation system also made provision for recording the extent to which the social climate of the projects was integrative and task oriented, as well as the relationships between the level of parity achieved and the products of the projects. Nearly 250 council meetings were studied (about ten per site).

3. The teacher training activities survey (see Chapter Five). Each of the projects was surveyed periodically during their last two years. The survey instrument identified the kinds of teacher training activities that were developed, the modes of training used, the trainers who were developed, and the relationship between the training activities and the needs assessment activities. In all, over 800 activities were studied.

4. The inservice education comparison study (see Chapters Six and Seven). In spring 1977, questionnaires were delivered to teachers, community members, and higher education personnel in the Urban/Rural projects and in three states which had been selected for comparison--Georgia, Michigan, and California. Altogether, over 3,800 teachers, 1,200 community members, and 250 higher education personnel were surveyed. The survey was designed to compare the experiences teachers were receiving in the Urban/Rural projects with those in the three states and to determine the attitudes of teachers, community members, and higher education personnel toward the solution of common inservice teacher education problems. The investigation was intended to answer the following question: Were the experiences of teachers, community members, and IHE personnel in the Urban/Rural projects different from those in the comparison sites?

5. Survey of student achievement (see Chapter Eight). Using data from the sites, a study was made of changes in student achievement in the classrooms of teachers who received intensive training.

6. Case studies (see Chapter Nine). During 1976-77 case studies were made of nine sites which appeared to have achieved various degrees of parity and which represented different types of communities. Six of these case studies are analyzed in Chapter Nine.

7. Conference interviews (see Chapter Two). More than 150 participants in the Urban/Rural projects were interviewed at a conference in Palo Alto, Calif., in June 1977. In the course of these interviews and discussions they were asked to share the lessons learned from their local experience: specifically, how they would organize councils, what pitfalls to avoid, what sources of energy to look for, and what kinds of obstacles had to be overcome in dealing with the inertia of the community and the bureaucracy together.

The chapters which follow present some of the most important specific findings of these studies and of two other small investigations of (a) the effect of participation in councils (see Chapter Four) and (b) teacher training (see Chapter Five).

HOW SUCCESSFUL WERE THE PROGRAMS?

We can draw a number of generalizations from the Urban/Rural experience.

Working Together Works

The 25 projects in the Urban/Rural School Development Program were based on school-community councils in which teachers and community members

had equal representation on boards whose responsibility it was to assess local needs and translate these into inservice teacher education programs.

The evidence appears clear that this process worked in a variety of ways. First, the school and community members on the councils were able to work together in relative harmony to carry out the processes of needs assessment, program reconstruction, and implementation. In fact, in the Urban/Rural program as a whole, school and community members made about equal input into the meetings of their councils (see Chapter Five).

Most important, the councils which achieved the greatest degree of equality between school and community persons generated the most active, responsive, and diverse inservice teacher education programs. Imbalance in either direction (school over community or community over school) reduced either program quantity, breadth of clients, or relevance to local problems (see Chapter Five).

Community members involved in the process became more positive toward teachers and teachers organizations than is commonly the case. Not only were they more positive toward options for solving problems such as time for training, but they also came to espouse alternatives such as providing released time for teachers (see Chapter Seven).

Although these councils worked in communities which are under considerable stress, they were able to assess needs, select the most important ones, and implement them in ways that solved many difficult inservice education problems. During the 1976-77 academic year, more than 800 teacher training activities were generated; in many of these, community members, aides, school administrators, and teachers worked together to improve their skills and the educational programs of their children.

Although the Urban/Rural School Development Program did not include higher education institutions as basic partners, and were under no obligation to involve higher education personnel in inservice teacher education, higher education institutions and people appeared persistently as trainers in the Urban/Rural projects. Faculty members served as resident professors or consultants, offered workshops, and altogether were valued colleagues. These faculty members also found ways to bring the power of their institutions with them, and many teachers in Urban/Rural earned higher degrees through onsite courses which were translated into college credits meeting degree and certification requirements.

Job-Embedded Inservice Teacher Education Can Work

It appears that onsite--hands-on--inservice experiences which are made part of the teacher's job can function effectively. Teachers in the Urban/Rural program received most of their training during school hours and in or near their schools (see Chapter Five). They reported greater satisfaction with these activities than did the comparison populations in California, Michigan, and Georgia. With the assistance of community members, teachers in Urban/Rural persuaded college faculty members to work onsite with them, dealing with the children as well as the teachers themselves. In this way, project participants bridged the gaps that often separate universities, school districts, teachers, and teachers organizations. Community members who were a part of this process also became more committed to the options that would permit job-embedded inservice education to take place (see Chapter Seven).

Teachers who are very much involved in inservice education have a more positive attitude toward it than those who are less involved. The more the community members and teachers participated in the collaborative governance process, the more positive they felt about collaborative governance and the more optimistic they felt about their schools. Collaborative governance appeared to produce more vigorous inservice education; draw teachers, community members, and higher education personnel more closely together; and result in the kind of hands-on, ongoing, job-embedded, course-related inservice education that manifests a positive expression of institutional collaboration (see Chapter Seven).

The Urban/Rural program did not solve all the problems of inservice education (see Chapters Seven and Nine), but it is a dramatic national experience in collaborative governance and the overall results are almost entirely positive.

Alienation Can Be Overcome

Teachers and community members agreed that their involvement in the Urban/Rural program was well worth the time and effort. Needs assessments were translated into programs which were then carried out. Nearly all the participants believed the projects had a positive impact on their schools and on the learning of their children. The vast majority felt they were, indeed, more efficacious in expressing local needs and more closely affiliated with the persons with whom they worked than before the process began (see Chapters Two and Three). In other words, the Urban/Rural program appears to have been successful in reducing alienation, increasing feelings of efficacy, and generating an integrative process whereby persons who had previously been separated were brought closer together.

In those communities where a clear test was possible, it appears that Urban/Rural may have affected pupil achievement in the classrooms where teachers were consistently involved in training.

In short:

1. Over the program as a whole, a relative equality of community and professional input was achieved. Councils took from one to two years to get organized, but once organized did an effective job of translating local needs. The greater the level of equality achieved, the more active were the teacher education programs which were generated.

2. The effect of participation seems to have been to reduce alienation and to increase feelings of efficacy among community members and professionals alike.

3. The more the participants were involved in the planning process, the greater were their feelings of integrativeness toward other groups and the greater their perception of project impact on their local situation.

4. It appears possible for teachers and community members to assess local needs and generate them into programmatic efforts (see Chapters Two, Three, Four, and Five).

5. Many projects managed to capture and focus the energy of community members and professionals on important problems in their areas. Urban/Rural appeared to fill a void where community members and others were

seeking participation and had previously lacked the channels for it. From findings in the comparison sites of Georgia, Michigan, and California, it appears that many community members throughout the United States would like to participate increasingly in educational decision making and are willing to put time into that enterprise. The more they desire this, the more favorable they are toward approaching the hard problems of creating vital schools and supportive staff development programs (see Chapter Seven).

6. Urban projects, on the whole, will be more expensive than rural projects and generally will provide less output for the dollar. This differential, we believe, is the price of the complexity of an urban society (see Chapter Five).

SUMMARY

The Urban/Rural model was essentially a very simple one: it involved community members, teachers, school administrators, and students in decision making. The Urban/Rural projects were deliberately located in poverty stricken communities where education is generally agreed to have been unsuccessful in the past and specifically in areas where students were achieving even less than average for that kind of community. The simple business of bringing people together and asking them to assess local needs and translate these needs into school programs to be implemented primarily through staff development appears to have (a) decreased feelings of alienation, (b) increased feelings of efficacy, (c) brought about a more integrative process, (d) generated a flow of energy into those communities, and (e) demonstrated that local needs can be translated by local personnel into meaningful programs.

The full story, of course, is more complex than this brief account. In the chapters that follow we will deal with lessons learned from the Urban/Rural process under the following topics:

1. What are the lessons learned for beginning school-community councils? (Chapter Two)

2. What are the lessons learned for improving the process by which school and community members relate together to make educational decisions? (Chapters Four and Nine)

3. What are the lessons learned about substance of teacher education? What was done and not done? (Chapters Five, Six, and Seven)

4. What has been learned for inservice teacher education in general? Specifically, how can school-community councils improve the process of inservice education? (Chapter Seven)

5. What are the things that should be done and not be done by each role group in the process? (Chapter Two)

6. What can be said about the effects of Urban/Rural teacher training on pupil achievement? (Chapter Eight)

The bottom line of the documentation indicates the school-community council idea is workable. Teachers, community members, and school administrators have nothing to fear by working together in extending the principles of democracy to the local school decision-making level. On the contrary, much is to be gained and, if the gains can be made in these communities where in the past efforts at school improvement have failed so completely, the Urban/Rural process probably has much to offer the more advantaged communities of the nation as well.

CHAPTER TWO

. . . . Start up for councils takes time--possibly two years if diverse input is to be achieved . . . .

. . . . Representation is crucial. Networks of community members are essential to governance. . . .

. . . . Technical assistance in process was important . . . .

CHAPTER TWO

KNOWLEDGE FROM THE FIELD: STARTING UP AND OPERATING A COUNCIL

Bruce R. Joyce

On June 12-14, 1977, more than 100 persons with experience in the Urban/Rural projects met in Palo Alto, Calif., at a conference organized around a series of discussions to bring together the "lessons learned" during the past few years. The purpose was to make their experiences available to others who could profit from increased community involvement in educational decision making.

The discussions were recorded and are summarized here according to the following topics: (a) Starting Up a Council, (b) Membership, (c) Leadership, (d) Organization, (e) Relationship to the Board of Education, and (f) Institutionalization.

STARTING UP A COUNCIL

Conference participants agreed that the startup time is from six months to a year or more. It takes quite a long time to achieve parity among the groups, and the persons responsible for beginning a council need to realize that it will take time and should not expect immediate results.

Startup has to be tailored to the nature of the community, especially configurations of subgroups. Nearly everyone agreed that beginning a council is quite different in urban and rural communities but also that both urban and rural sites display great variety. Thus, there is no "urban" or "rural" formula which can function well in all places.

Many participants felt that the early stages should involve the creation of a temporary or "ad hoc" committee (or council) with a defined period of existence during which it is responsible for establishing a council to represent four constituencies: (a) segments of the community to which it belongs, (b) teachers, (c) school administrators, and (d) students.

A tendency in the early stages is to try to find persons who are accustomed to working together effectively. But, in fact, one wants diverse elements to participate, particularly those who have not been franchised adequately in the past. A council composed solely of "old boys" who are long-established community leaders could be short-run productive and long-run dysfunctional. The council is a place where a more equal process for decision making can happen, but achieving equality will be a struggle. In fact, were the relationships among the groups to be involved in decision making already established, there would be no need for councils in the first place. One must accept the fact that this process will be difficult and take satisfaction in its worthwhileness.

MEMBERSHIP

One of the most important tasks of a temporary or startup council is the establishment of ways that members can legitimately be elected, appointed, or otherwise named to the council.

An interesting problem is to determine the probable relationship between parity and proportional representation. In some communities, councils probably can receive relatively equal input from groups which are numerically relatively equal in membership; that is, a given number of community members will contribute equally with the same number of professionals. In other communities, some groups may need greater numbers than others in order to achieve equal input.

Nearly all of the participants agreed that community members became increasingly more effective in proportion to their numbers as council processes became established. It is possible that councils should begin with larger numbers of certain groups and then equalize the memberships as the process of discussion matures.

Community

The most complex problem is the identification (early in the process) of the community subgroups which need to be represented. One cannot simply ask the parents of students in a given school to elect representatives at a PTA meeting. Traditionally, lower-income persons are proportionately disenfranchised by this method, and it is vital to ensure that larger proportions of underfranchised segments of the community are represented.

Knowledge of the community is necessary to determine its subgroups, and identifying disenfranchised subgroups is not easy. Many participants felt consultants should be used in identifying the subgroups to be represented. Almost any individuals who claim to "know" their own community will be challenged by others in that community, whereas the consultant can operate objectively and use several methods, as appropriate. Integral in the process is the recognition that many important subgroups will not identify themselves voluntarily but must be identified through study. Poor persons, especially, have fewer ways of expressing themselves or coming forth as an interest group than do other segments of the community.

In some cases, cadres of interviewers were trained to acquaint various segments of the community with the purposes of the projects and with the ways to participate in selection of council members. Many projects used petitions for nominations of candidates for membership; then some kind of polling process (very different among the sites) was established in order to legitimize actual election to the council.

The media are vital in council elections. Notices of times for filing petitions, elections, and results need to be broadcast through print media, radio, and television.

Teachers

Teachers clearly should elect their representatives either as a faculty or through their professional organization.

Where a strong professional organization already exists, it may determine the process for selecting teachers and legitimize their membership. Where no such organization is in place, school faculties have to be organized to carry out this function.

Sufficient numbers of teachers need to be included to establish an effective network for informing the other teachers about what is happening on an informal as well as a formal basis.

Administration

There was general agreement that the principals of schools to which council decisions pertain must have membership on the council--not an ex-officio nonvoting membership, but a real participating voting membership with all the obligations that pertain thereto. In nearly all cases other administrators must also have membership, but this participation has to be determined in terms of the bureaucratic layers of the community.

Involving administrative personnel early presents a danger that they will reestablish the same kind of process that has characterized the community before the existence of the council. Everyone agreed, however, that this risk must be taken because if the council and the administrators of the school become at odds (or uninformed about one another's situation and problems), then any likely product of council process will founder on confusion and mistrust. However, it was also agreed that very few administrators need to be involved, as long as they are the critical ones in the focus area of the council. For example, if three schools are involved, probably the three principals and two or three members from the central administration will more than suffice, even in an urban district.

The administrative membership, then, should include the essential significant members of the administration, but the smallest number consonant to represent the responsibilities of management personnel.

Students

The inclusion of students at the elementary level is confounded. Many felt general council membership for elementary school children to be unsatisfactory for both the children and the adults. However, everyone was uneasy about this conclusion. It was suggested that in elementary schools the students can be included at the level of functioning committees. A committee that plans an event on the history of the community, for example, can effectively involve students in planning and execution of that activity.

Also, most participants believed students at the secondary school level should be represented, not by just one or two or three persons but by a number significant to the council operation. It was felt that at least six or seven students were necessary to enable them to express their opinions comfortably and to feel a part of the process. If fewer students are included they are likely to feel powerless and respond by becoming either reticent or aggressive.

Network

Most participants also felt that a network mechanism for input, output, and confirmation of views should be established early in the process, that it is not enough for a segment of the community merely to elect representatives. A formal and informal network must be established so that many members of that community group can reflect on important issues and can confirm or approve council decisions. This network, which will be discussed under "Organization," was considered an extremely important aspect of membership determination.

Training

It was universally agreed that nearly all councils and subsections of councils need several kinds of training.

Most frequently mentioned was human relations training. Almost every council had some conflicts, and many members were unskilled in resolving conflict or reaching out to groups with which they had not previously interacted. For example, several councils needed outside help in learning to bridge racial differences.

Nearly all councils required group process skills as well: how to conduct a meeting, how to ensure input from all members, how to legitimize authority, and how to work with the administration to establish programs. The more a council succeeded in involving persons who had previously been partially disenfranchised, the more important this kind of training became.

Training was also provided in writing proposals, relating to institutions, and managing programs. As councils learned these skills they became more adept at understanding professional educators and less dependent on the professional staff for management expertise.

Finally, councils needed training in performing needs assessments (including the various techniques available for that process), translating needs into program, monitoring and evaluating programs, screening and employing consultants, and evaluating their own process.

In addition, nearly all the team managers said they themselves needed training as well, in how to understand council processes, how to relate to the council, how to preside over but not dominate the organization, and how to manage conflict.

LEADERSHIP

Including on the first temporary or ad hoc council some individuals with past community leadership experience is helpful, but one of the main purposes of councils is to develop community leadership. The council becomes a training ground for persons without previous community leadership. Many persons feel relatively inefficacious in the political process. Thus, an important function of a council is to enable persons who previously were partially disenfranchised to obtain positions where they can be efficacious.

A major problem is how to maintain leadership on a council while providing for continued renewal of membership for others. Most of the Urban/Rural councils used overlapping terms of membership, with the provision that persons could not succeed themselves after a certain period of time.

It was also observed that councils tend to drift away from the people unless the process of renewal is constant. If councils are not continuously rejuvenated by new membership, do not repeat needs assessments and the other processes that allow the community to provide input, and do not devlop networks that will challenge as well as stimulate them, the council will become very much like any other bureaucratic organization--interested in self-preservation and the welfare of its members rather than in service to the community.

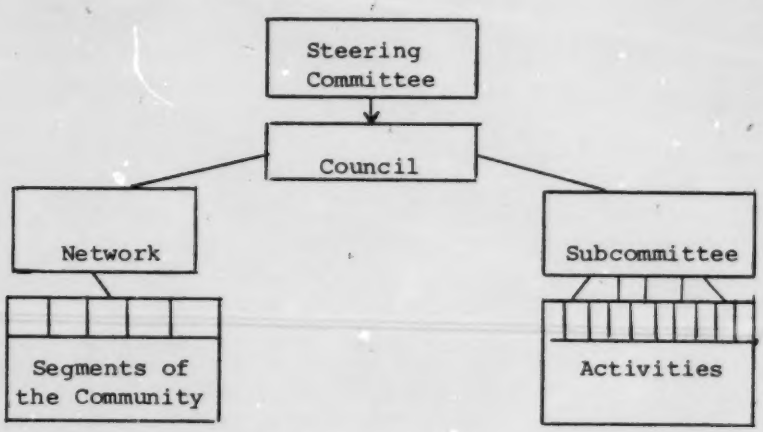
ORGANIZATION

How large can a council be, and how should it be organized?

Nearly all participants agreed that once a council becomes much larger than 20 persons, input from the various groups becomes very difficult. However, many communities cannot possibly be represented by a council of that size.

The organization shown in Figure 2.1 was suggested to keep the process of community input active, make the parity process feasible, provide for efficiency, and maintain a continuous flow of communication between the programs and the people they serve.

Figure 2.1
COUNCIL ORGANIZATION



Steering Committee

Once a council becomes too large for adequate day-to-day functioning, it should elect a steering committee of no more than 20 members. These members can proportionally represent the constituencies within the professional and community groups.

The steering committee's function is to manage the program (along with the professional staff) and to propose activities to the council and receive, study, and make more concrete the suggestions of council and other community members.

The Council

The council feeds information to the steering committee and approves or disapproves its recommendations. It is important that a steering committee not take over the council functions in decision making, else the democratic process will be lost. Ideally, the council receives ideas from the community, its standing committees, and the professional staff; studies these ideas and makes recommendations; receives the response to those recommendations; and replans or implements as necessary.

Standing Committees

As the program develops, its important strands should be represented by standing committees whose membership rotates gradually and whose function is to study proposals and monitor the activities that result as programs are implemented.

The Network

The council and standing committees need to relate to the network in different ways. The council uses a network of community persons, the professional staff of the school, and students to disseminate information about what it is doing, to seek confirmation when that is needed, and to receive input. Without the network most communities would find it impossible to maintain a school-community council which would embody a continuous flow of information to and from the council and its constituencies.

Segments of the Community and Professional Staff

The network members are the eyes and ears of the council and of the community as well. The council should endeavor at all times to ensure that the network relates to all segments of the community. It is relatively easy to set up a powerful council which will have legitimacy and (through the media) a facade of communication to its community. But if a council is really to involve persons who have not otherwise been effectively included in decision making, network members must relate to those disfranchised sections of the community continuously and effectively.

An essential function of the school-community council process is to raise the status of persons who have not previously had adequate participation in the decision-making process. Through the council steering committee, standing committees, the network, and informal group meetings throughout the community, more and more persons are brought into the decision-making process. Sheer involvement confers status. In many ways, the participants in the Urban/Rural process felt it was involvement that made all the difference. Persons who were involved did not feel inferior; they found it possible to contribute. Their status was raised immediately by participation in the democratic decision-making process.

RELATIONSHIP TO THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

One purpose of the school-community council is to increase input to the board of education. Except in the smallest communities, boards of education cannot represent all the diversity of the community. The councils, through their standing committees and networks, increase the flow of information to and from the board of education.

Simultaneously, they broaden the basis of legitimacy. If a board develops an adversarial relationship with its community, its days are probably numbered. The networks which support the council and represent its links to the community also, by implementing the democratic process through means other than formal board hearings, provide a basis for legitimizing many board decisions that otherwise might be unacceptable.

As part of this process the status of underfranchised groups is raised so that board members receive more and more information from constituencies that have previously been neglected.

The school-community councils and their processes also generate, at the local school level, a continuous renewal of parity among the participating groups. In many senses the board of education, the administration, and the professional staff of the schools all work for continuous school renewal. The thesis of Urban/Rural was that the inclusion of all constituent groups in this process would be beneficial by causing the consideration of issues and problems which were generally neglected by the usual board of education and professional school staff procedures.

Finally, the existence of the school-community council provides an opportunity to prepare people for more effective participation. Under the traditional organization, participation generally occurs under crisis, such as last-minute budget hearings, desegregation problems, or other issues which (in community terms) are very nearly traumatic. By involving persons consistently and providing them with training to work more effectively in the school decision-making process, the council helps people participate on a continuous rather than a crash basis. Thus, the board of education should see community involvement as an opportunity to improve the educational decision-making process in a variety of ways.

In practice, the relationship between councils and boards of education was intricate and uncertain in many cases. School-community councils can challenge many traditional functions of boards and district administrators, and the issues of authority and responsibility need to be faced squarely.

INSTITUTIONALIZATION

Most participants agreed that the institutionalization of school-community council processes and products should be inaugurated from the inception. Essential to institutionalization is establishing the process of community relations in educational decision making as a norm within the school system, in order to combat the belief that any kind of process must show a direct relationship to pupil learning before it can be incorporated. Were most school administrators or board members to submit themselves to that test, they might very well lose their jobs. Rather, broad involvement should be made integral simply because it offers a more efficient, inclusive, and positive mechanism for helping community persons contribute at several levels in the educational bureaucracy.

Program components should be gradually phased into "hard money" activities where that is appropriate, and thus put under the administration of other management elements. For example, one of the Urban/Rural projects generated a program on regional history. It should not be necessary for that council to maintain the program forever; rather, the school staff and administration should gradually seek to manage the component and relieve the council and its staff of that responsibility.

Gradually, also, the professional staff members of the council should become "line items" in the school budget. The team manager of a local school-community project probably should be at the level of an associate principal of the school. However, it is important that team managers work for the school-community councils. Their function should be to help train council members and to see that programs are managed and implemented. Even where team managers are employed by the school district, that relationship

should be made clear. If they become simply one more arm of the professional bureaucracy to manage community members and their input, the whole purpose of councils will be lost.

Long-term effective management requires what in the Urban/Rural program was called a "school development team." This committee, in which teachers have the majority and school administrators are represented, is responsible for translating council recommendations into ongoing activities in the school. Although councils varied widely in effectiveness and many found "startup" to be a wearing and sometimes tumultuous process, most developed a stable process as well as substantial teacher training programs. In the following chapters the process and programs are described in greater detail.

It is hoped that the "lessons learned" presented in this chapter will help future councils avoid some of the problems which are difficult to anticipate unless one has experienced the process of struggling toward parity. They are summarized here in a set of questions which council organizers might consider in trying to increase parity.

Quality of Planning

The quality of planning is very important but delicate. Either too little or too much planning can be harmful. While regular and continuous planning appears to be necessary, at the same time it is possible to be consumed with planning activities. How do we get a council going and organize the planning process?

1. How can one get a council started? What kinds of processes should be initiated at the beginning to clarify the role of the council and establish a way of identifying issues and procedures for joint problem solving?

2. How can one ensure open and free communication while maintaining a focus that gets decisions made? How long is the "shake-down" period before an optimal combination of free expression and efficiency is established?

3. What is the best way to assess needs?

4. How can one ensure that "needs assessments" will actually be translated into programs? In many previous programs, some have complained that elaborate needs assessments are undertaken but program seems to be developed independent of the results. How can one make sure this does not happen?

5. How can council members be helped to feel they have both the ability and the opportunity to contribute something? How does one face the problem of mingling professionals and persons who have much to contribute but are not professionals? Or does this problem solve itself?

Climate

One does not simply plan programs; really good programs take place in good social climates. The climate includes how administration, teachers,

community members, and parents feel about themselves, each other, their schools, and what they are doing. It also includes motivation, commitment, attitudes, and security. How do we build a good climate?

1. What are the roles of the community members, teachers, administration, and council staff in developing a good climate? Are there particular procedures to be followed in building positive relationships and a sense of optimism?

2. There would be little purpose in including community members in decision making if we did not suppose some decisions would result which would not be made by education professionals working without benefit of community input. How can a climate be developed so that community members can add to or challenge what education professionals would establish?

3. What are the common and separate roles of community members, principals, and teachers in the planning process?

Organization

As programs are developed, organization becomes particularly important so that work gets done, results are evaluated, and a continuous replanning process takes place.

1. What should be done by whom? Should a council have standing committees? How should roles be divided between council members and staff: What is the role of consultants, outside resources, and self-development?

2. How can councils find out what others have done in the areas they focus on? How much should one borrow ideas from outside and how much should one develop locally?

3. What kinds of support services are necessary in order to carry out activities? How can one find out the best sources and how to use them?

4. How can one develop evaluation which will provide useful feedback and not simply become a series of reports?

5. Not all teachers in the school district can be on the council. How does one build a liaison between council and persons who have to be part of the implementation of the program? How will the council work with the professional staff who may be represented on it but are not part of it?

The Role of Administration and the School Board

A council's existence is justified if things happen that would not otherwise take place. Therefore a relationship has to be developed between school administrators, school board members, and the council so that the council can initiate either new or better quality activities while being

aware of and responsive to the roles of administration and board. How can this relationship be accomplished?

1. What problems have to be faced and what can be done to deal with them? Are there certain kinds of persistent problems which will have to be dealt with? What political or organizational forces can be capitalized on? Which ones will inhibit a good relationship and what can be done about them?

2. What do the board, the superintendent, and the other administrative staff need to do to support the program? Are there special things that need to be done in policy, in organization, in providing or allotting resources, in authority and legitimization, in technical assistance, in political support?

Staff Development

Many councils will plan staff development activities. Nearly all school improvement depends, in part, on effective training for involved personnel. (It may be self-training in many areas.)

1. What is the best way to involve teachers in the program? Are there any persistent obstacles that have to be overcome? Are there particular conditions that can be capitalized on?

2. Not all activities can be successful. What can be done when things go wrong? Is there any process that can be set up so that if, for example, teachers react negatively to a planned activity, feedback can be received and acted on?

3. What should one do when a consultant or other person responsible for carrying out a program does something that was not expected and is not appropriate in the view of the participants or the council?

Institutionalization

Programs receiving support from outside the local level need to be institutionalized if they are to continue. How can this be planned for?

CHAPTER THREE

. . . . Councils were able to retain control of activities . . . .

. . . . Participants overwhelmingly believed that the projects were effective. . . .

. . . . Over fifty percent of the participants felt that children's learning had improved as a result of the projects. . . .

. . . . Role groups tended to agree in their perceptions . . . .

. . . . Teacher, administration and community members learned to talk the same languages . . . .

. . . . The greater the parity, the greater the involvement, and the greater the perception of impact . . . .

CHAPTER THREE

COUNCIL PROCESS: VIEWS OF THE PARTICIPANTS*

Bruce R. Joyce

This chapter reports a survey to determine the views of Urban/Rural participants (team managers, teachers, students, and community members) about process training activities and project impact.

As a first step, federal officials and technical assistants from the Stanford LTI rated all projects according to the extent to which they had achieved a state of relative parity and a relevant and productive teacher training program. Questionnaires then were given to the team manager at each site to be distributed to all the role groups involved in the program. The questionnaires explored individual participation, organizational structure and group process as they had evolved, the objectives and teacher training activities which emerged within the projects, and estimates of short- and long-term impact. In all, the questionnaire contained 47 items, many of which were accompanied by a list of alternative responses from which the respondent could choose.

More than 1,000 participants in the Urban/Rural project responded to the questionnaires. An average of 40 persons representing a cross section of all personnel and interest groups connected with the program responded from each site. These included team managers, council staff, nonstaff council members, teachers, school administrators, parents of children at site schools, staff development team members, paraprofessionals, and students who were council members.

The results from all these role groups were remarkably similar: they describe the Urban/Rural councils and council processes in much the same ways, identify the same types of problems, and have nearly the same perceptions about the positive achievements of the program.

Members of the LTI coded the responses and computed totals and percentages for each question. Urban and rural sites were compared and, by using the ratings previously obtained, the sites were divided into two groups, "high" parity and "low" parity. The rankings were to a large extent confirmed by the convergence of perceptions of site respondents on specific questions relating to participation and impact.

The results are displayed in tables throughout this report. In this chapter, findings specifically relate to organizational structure and group process, teacher training activities, and the impact the projects appear to have had. Any conclusions drawn from the survey have to be qualified in two ways. First, the questionnaire probed into areas which are very difficult to investigate adequately through any kind of questionnaire technique. Second, the questionnaires were distributed to individuals by the sites themselves and the respondents are by no means a random sample of Urban/Rural personnel. Nonetheless, enough information has been obtained to create a picture of the perceptions of the participants with regard to the program's functioning and impact.

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* Based on: Bruce R. Joyce et al. The Urban/Rural Process: Views of the Participants. Stanford, Calif.: Urban/Rural School Development Program, 1977.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND GROUP PROCESS

The operational heart of the Urban/Rural concept is embodied in the school-community council. The legislation requires that the council include teachers, administrators, other staff, and community members (including students). These requirements for membership are to ensure that "structural parity" will be achieved. Through the school-community council, the Urban/Rural program includes reasonably broad membership among the concerned segments of the professional and local community.

In this section, we will consider several aspects of council functioning: (a) the membership and attendance patterns in the councils; (b) the source, content, and fate of agenda items; and (c) the council's role in project development.

Membership and Attendance

The number of members of the school-community councils ranged from 15 to 30 people. The larger councils are apparently found more often in urban and "high parity" sites.

Nine-tenths of the council members regularly attend council meetings.

The Agenda: Sources, Content, and Destiny

Agenda items came from many members, but team managers and staff contributed more than the average person.

The major categories of agenda items dealt with program activities, objectives, and problems (see Table 3.1). High and low parity sites differed

Table 3.1

CONTENT OF AGENDA ITEMS OF URBAN/RURAL COUNCILS

Content of Agenda Items	All Sites	Urban Sites	Rural Sites	High Parity	Low Parity
Program Objectives	22.3%*	24.2%	23.5%	20.7%	26.3%
Program Activities	40.3	39.4	41.5	42.9	35.6
Program Problems	20.7	23.2	28.1	23.5	19.2
Council Process	8.0	8.5	7.6	8.5	4.0
Budget Making	6.3	4.9	7.9	6.0	9.4
Personnel	1.2	1.2	1.3	.6	1.7
Other	.3	.2	.4	.6	

* The figures in the table are relative frequencies as there were a few missing observations for this item.

somewhat in the content of the council agenda. Both types of sites spent much of their effort on program activities; however, high parity sites spent somewhat more time on program activities, problems, and council process and somewhat less time on program objectives and budgeting.

How Were Agenda Items Handled?

A display of the typical procedures used is presented in Table 3.2. Almost 25 percent of the participants suggested that the most common way of handling an agenda item in their school-community council was to bring it up sometime before a decision had to be made so that council members and others could discuss it and inform themselves about the future. Nearly as many reported that appointing a committee to study the matter and make a recommendation to the council was the most common method at their site. This latter occurred more frequently at high parity sites, perhaps reflecting the traditional democratic mode of operating in relatively large groups. Low parity sites much more frequently used the team managers and/or Urban/Rural staff to recommend ways of handling items.

Table 3.2

WAYS OF HANDLING AGENDA ITEMS

Ways of Handling Agenda Items	All Sites	Urban Sites	Rural Sites	High Parity	Low Parity
Committee Appointed and Reports to Council	22.5%*	29.7%	32.5%	31.1%	24.0%
Teachers and/or Administrators Discuss and Recommend	6.7	9.3	9.0	10.0	10.1
Brought up Two or Three Times Before a Decision	24.6	35.3	35.2	35.3	31.8
Team Manager and/or Urban/Rural Staff Make Recommendations	17.4	24.0	23.9	21.1	33.3
Other	1.5	1.8	2.4	1.1	.8

* All percentages in this table are adjusted frequencies. About 22 percent of the respondents did not answer this item, and 21 percent indicated they "did not know." Both of these groups are regarded as missing and the frequencies adjusted accordingly.

How Were Council Decisions Followed Up?

Once the council had agreed on an activity, how was the activity usually carried out? In general, follow-through depended very much on the activity involved. In a few sites, the team manager was delegated to carry out the activities, and in several sites committees were usually appointed to arrange for implementation. About 40.0 percent, however, indicated that the method used depended on the activity. In almost no cases were resident professors, trainers, or consultants employed to carry out decisions. Evidently, council members or staff tended to retain control of the activity, rather than contracting it out to other individuals.

All respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they had been personally involved in the major activities surrounding project development (see Table 3.3). Approximately 57 percent of the respondents indicated some or much involvement in all types of activities. Involvement was at about the same level in each of the six activities, with needs assessment and project implementation claiming the greatest degree of participation.

The procedures used to conduct needs assessment varied among the sites. The four most usual procedures were, in order of frequency: (a) the council discussed problems and decided on the needs, (b) consultants were hired to survey community needs, (c) a committee was appointed to carry out the survey and collect information for the council, and (d) Urban/Rural staff had primary responsibility to arrange a school/community survey of needs.

There is a more centralized process of decision making in low parity sites than in high parity sites where SCC process includes more people and uses more committee structures. However, indications of democratic process exist in all of the Urban/Rural sites to some extent, specifically in the evidence of committee systems, the publication of agendas well ahead of decision making, and the conduct of multiple needs assessments to keep the process live.

Table 3.3

EXTENT OF RESPONDENT INVOLVEMENT IN SIX ACTIVITIES

Type of Activity	Degree of Involvement			
	None	Little	Some	Much
Needs Assessment	20.2%	12.9%	38.9%	28.0%
Development of Objectives	25.0	17.7	35.9	21.4
Selection of Activities	25.1	19.8	32.6	22.5
Project Implementation	22.1	15.0	36.8	26.0
Project Evaluation	28.9	20.7	33.6	16.8
Development of Proposal	35.6	17.0	29.1	18.3

Impact of the Urban/Rural Projects

Participants were asked to indicate how much impact the Urban/Rural program was having on teachers, children, school administrators, and community members. In addition, they were asked to estimate the long-range impact of the particular Urban/Rural project with which they were affiliated, and to indicate the "side effects" or "spinoffs" that had occurred to their schools or communities. Overwhelmingly, the participants believed that their projects were effective.

Impact on Teachers: The majority believe that teachers are being influenced in several ways (see Table 3.4).

Impact on Children's Learning: Over half of the respondents felt that children's learning had been improved as a result of the project (see Table 3.5). "Skills in reading" and "opportunity to read" led the list (68.4 percent and 68.6 percent respectively). "Skills in arithmetic" was the lowest (57.8 percent).

In two categories there were considerable differences between high and low parity sites: (a) 80.8 percent of the high parity respondents felt there had been growth in arithmetic skills, contrasted with 61.9 percent of the persons from low parity sites; and (b) 87.4 percent of the high parity site members and only 71.8 percent of the low parity site members felt there had been growth with respect to pupil awareness of cultural identity. However, the majority in all sites believed that their projects had a positive effect on children's learning.

Table 3.4

ESTIMATES OF IMPACT ON TEACHERS

Area of Teaching	Degree of Impact: More	Less	No Change	Don't Know
New Ideas for Teaching	84.8%	.2	3.5	11.5
New Materials	77.9	.4	9.4	12.3
New Knowledge of Children	74.7	.7	9.0	15.4
New Attitudes Toward Children	72.7	.4	11.2	15.7
Diagnosing Learning and Reading Problems	74.0	.8	9.1	16.1
New Types of Parent Contact	61.4	1.2	20.9	16.3
Opportunity To Upgrade Competency	76.1	.9	4.3	18.7
Input from Staff and Community in Planning	65.9	1.4	10.7	22.0

Table 3.5

ESTIMATES OF IMPACT ON CHILDREN'S LEARNING
(HIGH AND LOW PARITY SITES)

	Degree of Impact					
	High Parity			Low Parity		
Area of Impact	More	Less	No Change	More	Less	No Change
Improved Skills in Reading	85.7%	1.7%	12.6%	83.2%		16.8%
Improved Skills in Arithmetic	80.8	1.9	17.4	61.9	2.2	36.0
More Chances To Read	86.8	1.4	11.8	83.2		16.8
Better Self-Concept	81.0	1.9	17.1	80.8	1.7	17.5
Better Attitudes Toward Others	74.9	3.8	21.3	74.9	1.8	23.4
Better Attitudes Toward Schooling	74.9	4.0	21.0	72.1	1.1	26.8
Awareness of Cultural Identity	87.4	.9	11.7	71.8	1.2	27.0

Impact on Administrators: Estimates of the degree of impact in administration are shown in Table 3.6. High and low parity sites appeared to be about the same. From the participants' view, Urban/Rural has helped administrators to change their behavior.

Long-Range Impact of the Program: Respondents were asked to make their estimates with respect to five categories: the community, the school administration, teachers, students, and parents. About 15 percent of the respondents indicated they did not know whether there would be much of an impact. Fewer than 10 percent of those who responded to the item felt there would be no impact, ranging from a low of 4 percent with respect to teachers, the primary target, to a high of 8.9 percent with respect to the school administration. The majority of the respondents felt there would be a considerable long-range impact on teachers, and nearly all felt there would be some or considerable impact in all categories.

There were some high/low parity differences. About 50.9 percent of the high parity respondents believed there would be a considerable impact on the community, compared with 35.8 percent of the low parity respondents. More of the high parity respondents (52.9 percent to 33.7 percent) felt there would be a considerble impact on the children. As was indicated earlier, community members were more actively involved than administrators in high parity sites, whereas in low parity sites administrators were the more actively involved. These differences in involvement may explain in part the differences in estimates of impact.

Table 3.6

ESTIMATES OF DEGREE OF IMPACT ON ADMINISTRATORS
(HIGH AND LOW PARITY SITES)

	Degree of Impact					
	High Parity			Low Parity		
Area of Impact	More	Less	No Change	More	Less	No Change
Responsiveness to Expression of Community Needs	77.3%	2.4%	20.3%	74.1%	1.9%	24.1%
Share in Decision Making	72.9	2.4	24.8	70.8	1.9	27.3
Accessible to Staff and Parents	68.6	1.9	29.5	72.8	2.5	24.7
Opportunity To Upgrade Professional Competency	84.1	1.4	14.5	82.0	2.0	16.0
Seeking Input from Staff in Community Planning	73.0	2.9	24.0	70.7	3.3	26.0

Nearly all of the respondents believe that the Urban/Rural program has had an impact that will persist beyond the end of the program itself. Paraprofessionals and parents tended to be most positive, while students were somewhat less confident.

Impact on Community Members: The respondents believed there has been a positive effect on community members and school-community relations (see Table 3.7).

SUMMARY:
VIEWS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

A striking feature of this part of the documentation study of the Urban/Rural program was the agreement in perceptions of the different role groups. At each site nearly all persons similarly described the processes that went on and the training program that resulted. All the role groups felt that the programs had been successful; that they were having an impact on teachers, administrators, community members, and children's learning; and that a good many of these types of impact were likely to persist.

Students were somewhat less pleased with the program than other persons, but students were in a minority on the councils, and most councils admitted they had not found a way to involve students effectively.

In addition, all role groups were involved consistently in nearly all activities of the projects; that is, councils performed executive as well

Table 3.7

ESTIMATES OF IMPACT ON COMMUNITY MEMBERS

Area of Impact	Degree of Impact: More	Less	No Change	Don't Know
Persons Working in Schools	72.8%	1.2%	12.6%	13.4%
Leadership Development	67.1	.4	10.8	21.6
Parent Interaction with Teachers	59.7	1.1	23.0	16.2
Parent Training in Assisting Children with Schoolwork	55.4	.8	19.4	24.4
Opportunities To Raise Educational Level	63.4	.7	14.6	21.4

as decision-making functions. Councils that achieved the greatest level of parity (mutual decision making) appeared to be those which concentrated most on involvement; devoted more time to process as well as to substance; used committee structures more widely; and involved council members, other community persons, and teachers more fully in more of the projects.

The overall impression from the responses to this questionnaire survey was of enthusiasm and involvement. The community members apparently felt more efficacious and teachers felt able to express their views and to be heard. The evidence is strong that persons feel more efficacious when they have been able to generate a program which draws them closer together, reduces alienation, and is likely to make an actual difference in their local situation. The goals of involvement, efficacy, and reduction of alienation appear to have been achieved at least partially by the Urban/Rural program as a whole. The greater the level of parity attained, the more fully the participants believe they have been involved and have generated effective programs.

CHAPTER FOUR

. . . . Structural parity was achieved in all councils . . . .

. . . . Over all of Urban/Rural, communication between community members and parents was relatively balanced . . . .

. . . . The higher the level of parity which was achieved early in the project, the more parity tended to endure . . . .

. . . . For Urban sites to achieve process parity, greater numbers of community members were needed . . . .

CHAPTER FOUR

THE SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COUNCIL: PROCESS AND PARITY*

Kenneth Howey and Barbara Cannon

Robert Hess and James Terry (see p. 5) reported that structural parity was achieved within the Urban/Rural School Development Program by the end of the first two years; that is, there was relative equality in numbers between representatives of the school and community on the basic decision-making body--the school-community council.

Structural parity was a considerable achievement. To achieve process parity--actual collaboration in decision making--was even more difficult and substantively more important.

This chapter reports an investigation into council process. The objective was to document interaction on councils so as to ascertain the extent to which the process became collaborative and to identify the factors which resulted in the achievement of various levels and types of parity.

In spring 1976 two persons at each site (usually one from the school and one from the community) were selected to observe council and committee meetings. These observers were knowledgeable about the Urban/Rural program yet not directly involved in the project. They were trained to acceptable levels of interjudgmental agreement with a validated coding instrument designed to yield indicators of process parity. Using this instrument they recorded the interaction patterns of the council members and others attending meetings during the period March 1976 through March 1977. Altogether, 248 council meetings were observed and almost 25,000 communications were recorded and coded.

The resulting data were analyzed in terms of the relative balance of verbal communication between school and community and the team manager. Also examined was the relative extent of "direct" or "indirect" communication (that is, the statements or questions and solicitations made by each role group). Attendance patterns, the degree of administrative involvement, the size of the council itself, and the frequency of meetings held were also examined with regard to how the council functioned. Finally, correlations were computed between factors which characterized different councils and the indicators of parity. The correlational analysis was directed at the following questions:

- What impact, if any, did different amounts of group process training have on the council's deliberations?

- Was the extent of disparity between school personnel and community in terms of level of formal education, type of vocation, and level of income related to the patterns of communication which evolved in these meetings?

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* See also: Barbara Cannon. "A Study of the School-Community Council Parity Process in the Urban/Rural Federal School Development Project." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., 1977.

- Did differences in the amount of previous community participation in other organizations and groups result in different interaction patterns?

- Were there differences between the patterns in urban and rural sites?

Additionally, sites reflecting the greatest degree of parity were contrasted with sites which appeared to achieve the least parity, in an effort to identify as precisely as possible those conditions and characteristics which were most associated with a balanced school-community interaction.

GENERAL COMMUNICATION PATTERNS

The indicators of process parity consist of three ratios which compare communications by community and school programs: (a) questions asked by school representatives compared with those asked by community representatives, (b) statements (introducing ideas, presenting reports, making a motion) made by school persons as compared with community persons, and (c) all types of communication made by school representatives compared with those made by community representatives.

Indicators of process parity:

$$\frac{\text{Number of school questions}}{\text{Number of community questions}} = \text{ratio of school to community questions}$$

e.g., $\frac{5 \text{ school questions}}{5 \text{ community questions}} = 1.00$ school/community ratio

$$\frac{\text{Number of school statements}}{\text{Number of community questions}} = \text{ratio of school to community statements}$$

e.g., $\frac{5 \text{ school statements}}{10 \text{ community statements}} = .5$ school/community ratio

$$\frac{\text{Total school communications}}{\text{Total community communications}} = \text{ratio of school communication to community communication}$$

e.g., $\frac{10 \text{ school communications}}{15 \text{ community communications}} = .667$ school/community ratio

In addition, parity level was determined by finding the difference in percentage of talk between school and community representatives and then subtracting this figure from 100 percent. For example, if school members contributed 45 percent and community members 55 percent, the difference is 10 percent; subtracting 10 percent from 100 percent yields a 90 percent parity level. The ratios indicate the relative amount of communication between the two role groups, while the parity level indicates the overall balance achieved regardless of which group contributed more or less of the communications.

Balance in the Program

When these formulas are applied to the data collected for all 19 sites which participated in this phase of the study, a rather remarkable general statistic results: the ratio of all school to all community verbal communications is 1.02 (1.00 would represent one school statement for one community statement), and the parity level achieved is 98.8 percent (see Table 4.1).

The indices of parity are consistent when the communication recorded is further broken down by statements and questions. School representatives made slightly more statements, with those from the community contributing slightly more questions. However, the ratio is almost one to one in each instance, indicating almost 100 percent parity in terms of balanced input from both role groups. It should also be noted that for these two role groups, there were 5,334 questions and solicitations as contrasted with 12,051 statements--that is, for every 2.25 statements made, a question was injected into the conversation. This is a remarkably high ratio of questions to other communications and suggests a highly integrative council process with individuals taking the time to inquire about the opinions and concerns of others.

Stability

To examine the stability over time of this general pattern of communication, an overall indicator of parity was computed by combining the ratios representing the proportions of school/community contributions. This general indication of parity was examined over three widely separated observation periods: spring 1976, late fall 1976, and late winter 1977 (see Table 4.2). Correlations for patterns of communication from spring to fall, spring to winter, and fall to winter were above .50 and significant at the .001 level.

When the specific ratios of questioning behavior and statements are examined over time, the same pattern of stability emerges. Questioning behavior correlates significantly (.01 level) from spring to fall and from fall to winter, and the ratio of school to community statements also correlates (.01) from spring to winter and fall to winter. Thus it appears that not only was a balanced and integrative pattern of communication achieved

Table 4.1

COMMUNICATION PATTERNS FOR ALL SITES COMBINED

	School	Community	S/C Ratio	Parity Level
All communications	8789 (50.6%)	8596 (49.4%)	1.02	98.8%
Statements	6147 (51.1%)	5904 (48.9%)	1.04	97.8
Questions	2642 (49.6%)	2692 (50.4%)	.98	99.2

Table 4.2

STABILITY OF PARITY:
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS OF GENERAL PARITY INDEX

TIME PERIOD	Spring 1976	Fall 1976
Fall 1976	.51*	
Winter 1977	.80*	.57*

* $p < .001$, rank order correlations

generally, but that this pattern remained fairly consistent as well. Both the level of participation demonstrated by various role groups and the specific type of dialog employed tended to be relatively consistent over time.

Urban/Rural Differences

Indicators of parity were also analyzed in terms of possible differences between the ten rural and nine urban sites that participated in this phase of study. These data are summarized in Table 4.3.

Communication patterns are similar for both urban and rural sites. The level of parity never falls below 92 for any type of communication in either urban or rural sites. Ratios of school to community talk, however, reveal one fundamental difference between urban and rural sites: in urban sites the community representatives are the major contributors, at least verbally, to the council process, whereas in rural sites the educators are. Community representatives in urban sites generally engaged in more group process training and were more experienced in other organizations and groups than their counterparts in rural areas; these factors may well account for some of the difference in communication patterns.

Table 4.4 illustrates the ratios of all school to community communication and levels of parity at the individual sites, rank ordered according to level of parity achieved.

Table 4.3

COMMUNICATION PATTERNS FOR URBAN AND RURAL SITES

Communication Patterns	Rural Sites (10) School	Community	S/C Ratio	Parity Level	Urban Sites (9) School	Community	S/C Ratio	Parity Level
All Communications	5,061 (53.7%)	4,360 (46.3%)	1.16	92.6	3,728 (46.8%)	4,236 (53.2%)	.88	93.6
Statements	3,741 (54%)	3,207 (46%)	1.16	92.0	2,406 (47%)	2,697 (53%)	.89	94.0
Questions	1,320 (53%)	1,153 (47%)	1.14	94.0	1,322 (46%)	1,539 (54%)	.86	92.0

Table 4.4

PARITY LEVELS AND RATIOS FOR ALL S/C COMMUNICATIONS
RANK ORDERED FOR URBAN/RURAL SITES

Rural Sites (10)			Urban Sites (9)		
Parity	Level	School/Community Ratio	Parity	Level	School/Community Ratio
1	98%	1.03	1	92%	.83
2	98	1.04	2	90	.82
3	90	1.21	3	84	1.40
4	90	1.24	4	82	1.46
5	84	1.35	5	82	.69
6	84	1.37	6	78	.64
7	76	1.65	7	74	1.72
8	70	1.85	8	70	.53
9	70	.59	9	48	.31
10	66	.48			

When individual sites are examined, the trend for the community to assume a more pronounced role in urban sites is clearly seen. Quantitatively, the community contributes more in all but three of the urban sites, and the school representatives contribute more in all but two of the rural sites. In the rural sites in which the community contributed more communications, the actual community representation was also much higher (a 10 to 5 ratio in the first instance and a 12 to 8 ratio in the second). Overall, the rural projects tended to have more sites with high parity levels and relative balance in communications, with the school representatives contributing only slightly more than the community.

Structural Parity and Process Parity

The three communication patterns which serve as indicators of process parity were examined in the light of structural parity, the attendance by both role groups across all meetings observed. Table 4.5 presents school/community ratios of all communications and parity levels achieved in terms of attendance of both groups at meetings. The formula for determining structural parity is the same as that used in overall process parity: the percentage each group contributed to their combined total is determined, the difference in these percentages is calculated, and that number is subtracted from 100 percent (50/50 parity) to yield an indication of parity. For example, if on a council with 20 members the community averages 12 (60 percent) in attendance and the school 8 (40 percent), the difference--20 percent--is subtracted from 100 percent, so the level of structural parity is calculated to be 80 percent.

A high degree of structural parity was achieved across all sites. The average level of structural parity in rural sites was 86 percent and in urban sites 88.6 percent. The range was relatively small, with only one site falling below 80 percent. Given the membership of the council at this site, the ratio of communications was about what one might expect (the structural parity, 60 percent; process parity, 66 percent). With one exception, those councils which had process parity levels over 90 percent

Table 4.5

INDICATORS OF STRUCTURAL AND PROCESS PARITY IN URBAN AND RURAL SITES

Rural Sites (10)		Urban Sites (9)	
Process Parity	Structural Parity	Process Parity	Structural Parity
98%	97%	92%	91%
98	91	90	90
90	74	84	91
90	97	82	74
84	95	82	90
84	84	78	91
76	91	74	95
70	89	70	95
70	83	48	81
66	60		

for all communications between the two role groups had structural parity levels over 90 percent. Similarly, the only two sites which had process parity levels of less than 70 also had the lowest structural parity. It should be noted that in each of the three instances in urban sites where the ratio of total communications was higher for the school than for the community, the number of school members in attendance was also higher.

Thus, it would appear that when communication patterns are examined in light of actual school/community attendance at meetings, a high measure of parity was achieved in Urban/Rural as a whole. Rural sites were characterized by a relative balance between school representatives (7.1) and community representatives (9.0) and a corresponding parity in the communication process. School members were slightly underrepresented, but balanced communication was achieved since they tend to generate slightly more communication and to do so in a relatively integrative manner. However, when the community representatives in rural sites acquired a 3 to 2 or a 2 to 1 ratio in membership, they increasingly dominated the dialog as well. It would appear that a somewhat larger but not disproportionate number of community representatives on rural boards facilitates parity in the communication process.

In the urban sites the councils were more nearly equivalent in representation from school (8.9) and community (9.1). Slightly greater representation from the community was not needed to ensure balanced communication. When the community representation was slightly larger than that of the schools (and even in two sites where it was slightly smaller), the community was the primary contributor in council meetings. In situations where more school representatives were present than community persons, the school personnel became the primary discussants. Balance in attendance resulted in balance in decision making--the highest levels of process

parity were associated with high structural parity. These data would suggest that parity in numbers would appear to be more desirable in urban sites than rural sites.

While little can be said as a result of this initial investigation about the ideal size for a school-community council, it should be noted that on the average the rural councils were originally constructed at between 22 and 23 members (22.3), but the average attendance was 16.1. In urban sites the average council originally had 30.5 members but leveled off to 18 members in attendance. Again, while there may be nothing inherently important in these average attendance figures, it does appear that any number larger than 15 to 18 would be difficult to maintain over time.

Team Managers' Role

The team managers, in their role as chairpersons of the council meetings, assumed an important role in the council dialog. Across all sites their verbal contributions accounted for almost 14 percent of the total communication recorded. There was a considerable range in the extent to which they participated verbally--from almost a quarter of the discourse recorded in one site to only one percent in another. In rural sites the team managers' verbal input comprised 17.8 percent of the discourse recorded (about one in every six statements), while in the urban sites they contributed closer to 12 percent (one in eight of the verbal statements recorded). The lower verbal profile for team managers in urban sites may be explained partially by the fact that a basic function of the team manager was to ensure community involvement, and this involvement was more readily achieved in urban sites.

Interestingly, differences emerge from comparisons of the four sites (two urban and two rural) where the team managers made the most contributions (20 to 24 percent) with the four sites where they made the least (1 to 9 percent). Where the team manager assumed a more active verbal role, structural parity levels were 90 percent or greater; whereas in three of the four sites where the team manager contributed the least verbal input, structural parity was among the lowest recorded--from 74 to 82 percent. In the remaining site a 90 percent level of attendance was achieved. In three of four sites where the team manager was most actively involved, high parity levels were achieved in both indirect or soliciting verbal behavior (98, 98, 94) and statements (100, 96, 90); where there was relatively little team manager input, much lower levels of process parity were achieved in integrative soliciting comments (80, 70, 50, 48).

While the limited number of sites in this high versus low parity comparison preempts any type of statistical comparison, and while degree of verbal discourse is acknowledged as but one indicator of team manager influence, these observations nonetheless suggest the influence a team manager or someone in a similar role has in a school-community decision making process. It appears that an active role in council proceedings by such a person can facilitate a greater degree of parity between the participating role groups. The fact that the rural sites, where team managers were generally more involved verbally, also generated more training activities for both teachers and community (see Chapter Five) reinforces the notion that an active role by the team manager generally produces beneficial results.

COUNCIL CHARACTERISTICS

In an effort to identify council characteristics which contribute to parity in the decision-making process, the following factors were examined:

1. Participation in group process training by council members
2. Disparity in education, occupation, and income between school and community representatives
3. Prior participation and leadership assumed in groups and organizations
4. The extent to which persons with formal decision-making responsibility in the system (school administrators) were involved in the meetings
5. Frequency of council meetings
6. Number of persons on the council.

Previous group process training experienced by council members was determined by an inventory which included 15 skills commonly associated with effective group process and committee work. Respondents indicated on a four-point scale the degree to which they had engaged in training related to each of these skills. Each council member's involvement in such training was represented by a number from 0 to 60 (15 skills X a 1-4 scale).

Extensive group process training was reported across all sites, a reflection of the concern for harmonious school-community relationships in the Urban/Rural program. The mean score of 43 for all council members across sites is quite high (indicating substantive involvement in each major skill area at some time). Council members in urban sites tended to report slightly more training (46.6) than their rural counterparts (39.8).

Disparity in levels of formal education was determined by subtracting the average years of schooling for community members from the average for school representatives. For example, an average of 18.4 years of schooling for the school representatives minus 15 years average schooling for the community representatives would give a disparity index of 3.4. Council members indicated their level of income on a seven-point scale beginning at $5,000 or less and continuing with $2,500 increments to $20,000 and over. Thus, a 2.2 index of economic disparity would represent a difference between council and community (school average minus community average) of about $5,000 in salary. Finally, using the 1970 U.S. Census of Population Earnings by Occupation and Education, which rank orders jobs on a twelve point scale, a similar index of vocational disparity was calculated to indicate differences between community and school representatives in earning power attached to and prerequisite training and skill necessary for their occupations. Table 4.6 illustrates the range of disparity in education, income, and occupation across all sites.

As the table illustrates, there was considerable educational disparity between school and community members. In site 1 the community members represented on the council had on the average almost two years of education

Table 4.6

DISPARITY BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY IN EDUCATION, INCOME, AND OCCUPATION

Average Difference in Years of Formal Schooling	Average Difference in Income	Average Difference in Classification of Vocational Status
-1.9*	0	.3
2.5	0	.5
2.7	$250	.6
2.8	$250	1.0
3.7	$500	1.0
3.8	$1,000	1.1
4.2	$1,000	1.1
4.9	$1,000	2.2
5.1	$1,250	2.3
5.3	$1,250	2.5
5.4	$1,250	2.8
5.4	$5,250	3.0
5.9	$5,500	3.1
6.1	$5,500	3.4
6.1	$7,500	3.8
6.8	$7,500	6.3
	$10,250	7.8
16 sites reporting	17 sites reporting	17 sites reporting

* Community council members averaged more education than school members in this one instance.

more than the school representatives. This was the single exception, however; the teachers had more formal education in every other site, with the average difference being 3.9 years of schooling and the extreme almost seven years. The average difference in educational level between urban and rural sites was almost identical, with 4.4 years for the former and 4.3 years for the latter.

Disparity in income ranged from near zero in several sites to more than $10,000 in one site. The average disparity index across all sites was .9 or about $2,200. There were sharp differences between urban and rural sites, however. In rural sites the disparity index was .5 or about $1,250; in urban sites the difference was 1.9, about four times as great (close to $5,000).

Given differences in education and income, one would expect differences in vocational level as well. As Table 4.6 shows, in several sites teachers and community representatives hold positions classified as relatively similar in complexity and earning power; at other sites substantial disparity exists between the teaching professions and the typical job roles assumed by the community members on the council. The trend across all sites is for school personnel to be ranked two classifications higher than community representatives, with little difference between urban sites (1.99) and rural sites (2.1).

The degree of previous involvement in committee and organizational work by community members was also ascertained through an inventory. Community members reported their prior involvement in federal projects, educational organizations, and community groups, as well as agencies and associations in general. They also indicated whether they had held an office, chaired a committee, or filled a leadership position. Not surprisingly, Urban/Rural attracted community persons with experience in a variety of groups. At one extreme, the average community member in one site had been involved in 15 groups, clubs, or associations and had held five leadership positions. At the other extreme, community members of another site had been involved in less than three organizations and had assumed no leadership. Across all sites the average number of involvements in other organizations was six, and the average number of offices held or committees chaired was less than two (1.4). Thus, while community members in Urban/Rural tended to have been involved with a variety of groups over the years, they had rarely had either the opportunity or the inclination to assume positions of leadership. Predictably, community representatives in urban sites generally had more involvement with different groups (7.2) than those in rural areas (5.2), and were also more likely to have assumed some leadership (1.7) than their rural counterparts (1.1)--although, as was noted, such responsibility was relatively rare for both groups.

The fourth factor considered in examining council characteristics was the frequency with which administrators or other persons with decision-making responsibilities in the formal schooling process attended council meetings. The inventory revealed that attendance at council meetings by more than one administrator was relatively rare: it ranged from no administrators at one site to 1.4 administrators involved across all meetings at another site. The norm was to have one administrator in attendance at three of every four meetings. This .75 attendance figure was the same across both urban and rural sites.

These council characteristics were analyzed for their possible relationship to the process ratio values referred to earlier: school to community questions, school to community statements, and school to community total communications. Briefly, few high correlations between these council characteristics and patterns of communications held up across all meetings observed, and even fewer were significant.

In general, it appears that the more the council members have engaged in group process training, the less likely the school representatives are to dominate. Previous participation in organized groups and opportunity for leadership also tend to be negatively correlated with the school/community ratios, supporting the commonsense notion that prior experience facilitates more community involvement. While this trend was neither consistent nor statistically significant across all sites, this analysis does suggest that previous experience is a factor in achieving parity in the council process in urban sites.

When disparities in educational level, occupation, and income were examined, the trend was again toward negative correlations across all sites and across all meetings; that is, the greater the discrepancy, the more likely the school representatives are to dominate. Again, however, these correlations were neither consistent nor significant. When sites with the highest degree of parity were contrasted with sites with the least parity, the implication was reinforced that smaller discrepancies in socioeconomic indices were related to more balanced ratios of communication between school and community members.

Urban and Rural Differences in Council Characteristics

As indicated earlier, urban sites reported more group process training (urban 46.6, rural 39.8).

When differences across urban sites and rural sites were examined, a positive relationship (r=.86), significant at the .01 level,* between previous group process training and the ratio of questions was obtained in urban sites. Neither positive nor significant relationships were found between group process training and any of the ratios in rural sites. It should be recalled that in urban sites the community contributed 54 percent of the questions as compared with 47 percent in the rural sites. Thus, while there was a relative balance of question asking in both urban and rural sites, the community in urban sites assumed a more integrative role, which may be partially a function of their more extensive group process training.

Previous organizational experience and leadership correlated positively with the ratio of communications of team managers to others on the council in urban sites. Given that the team manager contributed only about 12 percent of the verbal discourse in urban sites as contrasted with almost 18 percent in the rural sites, and that community representatives in urban sites had more experience in organizational and committee work (7.2) than those in rural sites (5.2), one could conclude that urban team managers assumed a lower profile when there was a more experienced community contingent.

Data for this study were gathered for a period of one year, in which rural sites averaged 13.3 council meetings and urban sites 10.8. The number of meetings correlated negatively with the total school/community communication ratio in rural sites (and with the total school/community communication ratio during one observation period in urban sites). In rural sites these more frequent meetings were associated with less dominance by school personnel.

Finally, the number of members on a council was positively correlated with all three ratios of school/community communication in rural sites, but with none in urban sites. Administrative attendance was positively correlated with two of these ratios in rural sites--school to community questions and school to community statements; no similar patterns were found for urban sites.

The meaning of these relationships is unclear. Possibly the rural community members feel that smaller groups facilitate active participation, while council size may not be a factor for community persons in urban areas, who may be more accustomed to larger, more diverse action groups. Earlier analyses suggested the community should have greater representation than the school in rural areas whatever the group size. Possibly school administrators in rural areas have the image of authority figures, a perception which could constrain the community input to council meetings. Whatever the size of the deliberative body, the ratio of community to school members and the role of the administrators in the council process both seem to warrant further investigation, especially in rural sites.

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* The t-test was employed to compare means for group process training with mean ratios of school/community communications. Negative correlations were found consistently; two were significant at the .05 level.

High Parity Sites Versus Low Parity Sites

In addition to examining possible urban and rural differences in council characteristics, sites with the greatest balance in overall communication (parity levels of 98, 98, 92, 90) were compared with sites with the least balance of overall communication (70, 70, 66, 48).

Three of the four sites achieving the greatest balance for overall communication were rural sites characterized by relatively small discrepancies in occupation, income, and education between community and school representatives. The council had not engaged in as much group process training as most sites, nor did the community have as much prior experience in other group activities; however, administrators were somewhat more involved and the team manager assumed an active role in the discussions.

In the one urban site which achieved a very high overall balance in communications, there were considerable discrepancies in terms of occupation, income, and education. These, however, were offset by a substantial amount of group process training and prior experience in community groups. In addition, attendance by the school administration was high, but the team manager was not as active in the deliberations as in the rural sites.

The four sites with the least balance in their council discussions (two urban, two rural) did not share common characteristics. They did have slightly larger discrepancies in occupation, income, and education and somewhat less group process training than did other sites.

Thus, in this comparison high parity was related to less disparity between occupation, income, and education. Group process training, an active team manager, and prior experience by the community, however, tended to offset the differences in occupational and income levels.

School-Dominated Versus Community-Dominated Council

In the four sites where the ratios were highest for school to community statements, a profile of the council disclosed relatively little involvement by the team manager, moderate to low group process training, low to moderate prior experience by the community in organized groups, and relatively high disparity between school and community in terms of education and especially occupation. In those sites where the ratios were the lowest and the community assumed the more dominant verbal role, one finds that the team manager assumed a more active role, while the community members reported more group process training and also more previous experience in council-like activity. Finally, the disparities between the socioeconomic indices were not as great as in the sites where the school members were more assertive.

School representatives were more dominant where the community had less group process training and less prior experience in organized groups. In these councils, greater discrepancies in occupation and income between school and community also existed.

There were some exceptions as well. Where the community assumed a more integrative question-asking role, the team manager was less involved than on the councils where school representatives were more dominant. Also, the disparity in education level was greater at sites where the community tended to raise more questions. Nonetheless, these data generally support the prior analyses and commonsense notions that communities are more

actively engaged in the council process when they have had (a) group process training, (b) prior experience on councils, and (c) education, jobs, and income relatively similar to their education counterparts.

SUMMARY

The National Urban/Rural School Development Program would appear to have accomplished one of its fundamental missions--achieving relative parity in school/community decision making. Across the 19 sites which were intensively observed for one year, the level of parity in all types of communication recorded was 98 percent--almost an ideal 50/50 balance. Additionally, this desired pattern of interaction remained stable over time. A highly integrative ratio of 1 question for every 2.25 statements characterized these deliberations. A high degree of structural parity was maintained as well: 13 of the 19 projects had levels of structural parity over 90 percent, and in only one site was it less than 80 percent. Both community and school persons remained involved over time and in relatively equal numbers.

Council characteristics which appeared to contribute to this balanced and integrative dialog included the active involvement of both formal leadership in the project (a team manager) and formal leadership in the school (administrators). Reasonable consonance in socioeconomic status contributed to harmonious council discourse. However, lack of experiential background appeared to be alleviated at several sites through group process training and the infusion into the council of community persons with prior experience in collaborative decision making.

Those urban and rural councils which achieved the highest levels of parity differed somewhat in their characteristics. Urban councils achieved a high degree of process parity when there was basic equality between the school and community members; rural sites tended to need a slightly larger community representation to offset the educators' greater familiarity with the school process and propensity to dominate the discussions.* Group process training was generally more common in urban sites and apparently helpful. It tended to counteract any potential communication problems attendant to socioeconomic differences--such as the average disparity of $5,000 a year in income--between community and school representatives in urban sites. The team manager generally assumed a lower profile--at least quantitatively--in the urban meetings whereas the community tended to assume a more active role.

In rural sites, where the highest parity in the council process was observed, there was invariably a slightly larger community than school contingent. Also, more frequent meetings apparently were necessary than in the urban setting. In the larger rural councils, school representatives tended to dominate the discussion. Thus, relatively smaller councils with a somewhat larger community representation appear desirable for achieving process parity in rural sites and would seem more critical than group process training or experienced community leadership. In the most effective rural sites, team managers tended to be more highly involved in the council

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* See: Kathy Huguenin. "The Effects of Parity on Decision-Making Between Parents and Teachers." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., 1977.

process. Their involvement appeared to facilitate community involvement, while the school administrators were more likely to constrain community involvement than was the case in urban sites.

These generalizations about the relatively new and complex process of collaborative decision making between school and community are obviously tentative. Nonetheless, given the success of this five-year venture, some promising factors have been identified. The Urban/Rural council process has demonstrated that school and community can work effectively together on a continuing basis. These initial baseline data provide guidelines for several variables (relative representation, appropriate leadership roles, degree and type of group training, size of group, and frequency of meetings) which need continued systematic study. Careful consideration of these factors appears central to the achievement of parity in diverse settings.

CHAPTER FIVE

. . . . In sixteen months over 800 inservice activities were generated in the twenty-five sites. . . .

. . . . Nearly seventy percent of the training was organized during the school day. Traditional incentives (credit and salary) combined with on-site delivery to produce high involvement . . . .

. . . . Rural sites generated nearly twice as many hours of training as did urban sites . . . .

. . . . Rural sites more frequently involved diverse populations in training . . . .

. . . . Urban sites concentrated on teachers in generating greater numbers of on-site workshops . . . .

. . . . The greater the levels of process parity the greater, the greater the activity in the projects . . . .

CHAPTER FIVE

TEACHER TRAINING: SUBSTANCE FROM PROCESS*

Sam J. Yarger and Bert Manriquez

The Urban/Rural strategy was to improve schooling by providing training for teachers, school administrators, parents, and community members. Thus, the council process resulted in decisions about staff development activities. In this chapter the programs which were implemented between December 1975 and March 1977 are examined. The questions addressed are:

1. What kinds of training activities did the Urban/Rural programs generate?

2. What were the differences between urban and rural sites?

3. Were differences in council processes related to the production of staff development activities?

HOW THE DATA WERE COLLECTED

The data collected for this report were gathered with the use of a Site Activity Survey Form, designed to obtain information on the planning and delivery of training activities:

- Number of training activities conducted
- Length of training activities in weeks and hours
- Training methods used
- Number of participants by role group
- Content of training
- Training personnel
- Locations of activities
- Time when activities were conducted
- Incentives provided for participants
- Evaluation
- Cost of activities.

The data were gathered by telephone interviews on a regular basis between December 1975 and March 1977. This technique, involving the Urban/Rural team manager and a member of the Leadership Training Institute staff, was structured according to the Site Activity Survey Form. The validity of the data was established by comparison with available records, by interviewing LTI staff assigned to assist a given site, and by interviewing other respondents who worked in Urban/Rural programs.

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* For an extensive report, see: Bert N. Manriquez. "The Parity Process for Improved Staff Development." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, Stanford, Calif., 1977.

Table 5.1

NUMBER OF ACTIVITIES AND MEANS FOR 25 URBAN/RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Number of Activities	Number of Sites	Number of Activities per Interval (1-10, etc.)	Mean Number of Activities per site
1 to 10	5	39	7.8
11 to 20	6	93	15.5
21 to 50	11	325	29.5
51 or more	3	356	118.7
Totals	25	813	32.5

TEACHER TRAINING ACTIVITIES

In this section, the teacher training activities that occurred in Urban/Rural are described in terms of:

- Number and length of activities
- Role groups who received training
- Topic and content areas of training activities
- Trainers used
- Periods when training was offered
- Incentives offered participants
- Delivery modes.

Table 5.1 presents a summary of the number of activities as well as the distribution of these activities across the Urban/Rural sites. The mean number of activities offered was 32.5. The range was considerable, with one site offering only five activities during the period and another offering over 200.

The length of training activities is presented in Table 5.2. Over half of the activities were one week or less in duration. About 15 percent were offered over a period of a semester or longer.

The activities served a variety of clients (see Table 5.3). Even though the program was primarily oriented toward teachers, other role groups were included in program activities. Probably the most important aspect of these data is the number of community members and students who participated in some form of program activity. It should be pointed out that an analysis of the data suggests that students were dealt with in larger groups, so the 21.2 percent figure does not reflect the proportion of training that was generated, only the number of clients served. The same principle also must be used to understand the community clients (see Table 5.4). In many cases, the community participants received training in conjunction with teachers, teacher aides, and others.

Two types of analyses were performed on the content of Urban/Rural activities. These data are presented in Table 5.4 and Table 5.5. First, topic areas that related to administrative functions, community oriented

Table 5.2

LENGTH OF ACTIVITIES IN WEEKS FOR
25 URBAN/RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Number of Weeks	Number of Activities	Percent of Activities
1 or less	412	50.7
2 to 6	121	14.9
7 to 14	156	19.2
15 to 24	94	11.6
25 or more	30	3.7
Totals	813	100.1*

* Total more than 100% because of rounding.

functions, and teacher education functions were determined. Even though many clients were served as shown in Table 5.3, it is important to note that when the activities were translated into hours of training, well over 90 percent of the training focused on some aspect of teacher education. It is also interesting that activities in the community and teacher education domains were considerably longer than those directed toward the development of administrative skills.

The training activities were also analyzed by more traditional content areas. These data are presented in Table 5.5. Over 40 percent of the hours of training were devoted to activities that can be classified as "Instructional Process." Thus, a good deal of the training focused on the "how to" of teaching, presumably with the children in classrooms. Only slightly more than 15 percent of the training was devoted to basic curricular areas such as reading and mathematics, with even less devoted to such specialty areas as career education, physical education, and so on. There was a paucity of training in the bilingual/bicultural areas, and when such training did occur, it occurred only within a small number of sites. This

Table 5.3

ROLE GROUPS OF PARTICIPANTS SERVED
BY ACTIVITIES OF 25 URBAN/RURAL SITES

Role Group	Number of Participants	Percent of Total
Teachers	13,680	62.3
Community	2,535	11.5
Administrators	283	1.3
Students	4,658	21.2
Teacher Trainees/Aides	583	2.7
Urban/Rural Staff	210	1.0
Total	21,949	100.0

Table 5.4

DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVITIES BY TOPIC FOR
25 URBAN/RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Topic	Number of Activities	Number of Hours	Percent of Total Hours
Administrative	39	493	1.5
Community-Oriented	76	1,438	5.0
Teacher Education	698	27,085	93.5
Totals	813	29,016	100.0

limited amount of bilingual/bicultural training may reflect the characteristics of the different sites, but it may also reflect the limited number of bilingual and bicultural resources available to teacher trainers.

Table 5.6 presents data concerning trainers used in the 25 Urban/Rural sites. One of the most important outcomes and most significant contributions of the Urban/Rural Program has been development of resident trainers. As noted in Table 5.6, over half of the total hours of training reported during the 16-month period were provided by resident trainers. Data gathered from the case studies (see Chapter Six) suggested a great deal of this training was performed in classrooms during the instructional day, thus providing evidence that job-embedded inservice can, in fact, work. It is also interesting to note that nearly 30 percent of the trainers were college or university professors, though colleges and universities were not official partners in the Urban/Rural process. When one looks at the type of trainers used by the sites, an interesting analysis emerges. While college and university professors along with external consultants were used in more sites, the resident trainers provided the greatest amount of training.

Table 5.5

DISTRIBUTION OF ACTIVITIES BY CONTENT AREA
FOR 25 URBAN/RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Content Area	Number of Activities	Number of Hours	Percent of Total Hours	Mean Hours Per Activity	Number of Sites with Activities
Basic Curricular (Reading, Math, etc.)	172	4,717	16.3	27.4	19
Specialty Curricular (Career, Physical Education, etc.)	165	3,379	11.7	20.5	13
Instructional Process	355	12,350	42.6	34.8	n/a
Bilingual/Bicultural	16	838	2.9	52.4	4
Other	105	7,672	26.5	73.1	n/a
Totals	813	28,956	100.0	35.6	25

Table 5.6

TRAINERS USED IN 25 URBAN/RURAL SITES
DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Source of Trainer	Number of Trainers*	Number of Hours of Training	Percent of Total Hours	Mean Hours of Training Per Trainer	Number of Sites Using Trainers
College or University	198	5,738	19.0	29.0	20
Local School District	138	1,428	4.7	10.3	16
Resident Trainer	100	15,254	50.6	152.5	12
Urban/Rural Staff	101	3,838	12.7	38.0	12
External Consultants	189	2,670	8.8	14.1	21
LTI	20	145	0.5	7.3	4
Other	80	1,103	3.7	13.8	17
Totals	826	30,176	100.0	36.6	25

* In some cases more than one trainer was used for a single activity; thus, the data do not precisely represent the number of activities.

The question of when training activities were offered was also raised; these data are presented in Table 5.7. It is almost startling that nearly 70 percent of the training occurred during the school day. Although some of this training occurred by virtue of teachers being released from their instructional responsibilities, there can be little doubt that some of it also occurred by virtue of the resident trainers who were noted in Table 5.6. Again, Urban/Rural has provided evidence of job-embedded inservice and has demonstrated its workability over at least a 16-month period.

Table 5.7

PERIODS WHEN TRAINING OCCURRED
FOR 25 URBAN/RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Period of Training	Number of Hours	Percent of Total Hours	Number of Sites Using Period	Mean Number of Hours per Site
During School	19,525	68.8	22	887.5
After School	6,507	22.9	22	295.8
Weekends	360	1.3	17	21.2
Summers	1,976	7.0	11	179.6
Totals	28,368	100.0	25	1,134.7

The Urban/Rural sites were also asked to provide information concerning the incentives that were used for those who participated in training activities. As noted in Table 5.8, nearly 30 percent of the hours of training were linked to college and university credits. The next most prevalent incentive was categorized as "other school district benefits." These were typically informal in nature and often involved specific tributes being paid to participants. This might include being asked to make a report or to represent the school or program at a meeting. These incentives were, for the most part, intangible in nature. Interestingly, as will be discussed in a later section of this chapter, this type of incentive was used more frequently in rural than in urban sites. Finally--and this was surprising to many analysts who have observed Urban/Rural programs--a very limited number of hours of training were linked to the provision of travel or other socially beneficial incentives. The most logical explanation is that the provision of resources to travel or the provision of some other highly visible social reward was linked to something other than the willingness of the participant to become involved in a training activity. It should also be noted that even if a relatively high proportion of funds were earmarked for participant travel, the actual numbers that might be served would be quite low.

Table 5.8

INCENTIVES USED BY 25 URBAN/RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Incentive	Linked Number of Hours	Percent of Total Hours	Number of Sites Using Incentive	Mean Number of Hours by Site
District Salary Increment	3,990	19.3	14	285.0
College Credit	6,123	29.6	17	360.2
Direct Stipends	2,739	13.3	19	144.2
Travel or Other Social Benefit	486	2.4	6	81.0
Other District Benefit	5,301	25.6	8	662.6
Other	2,029	9.8	18	112.7
Total	20,668	100.0	25	826.7

Summary

It appears from the available data that the Urban/Rural sites were quite active in program development. During the 16-month reporting period, over 800 different activities were reported, with most of them quite short in duration. They appealed to a number of different role groups, led as one might expect by teachers, but also including community participants and students at a fairly high level. Over 90 percent of the activities were in the teacher education area, with the bulk of those focusing on instructional processes that presumably related to teaching children in classrooms. A number of different types of trainers were used in Urban/Rural projects.

One of the most important contributions of Urban/Rural was that over half of the hours of training during the reporting period were accounted for by resident trainers who offered a considerable amount of on-the-job training. At the same time, and supportive of this finding, nearly 70 percent of the hours of training occurred during school rather than in the late afternoon or evening, on weekends, or when school was not in session. Although some of this may have resulted from released time, a great deal of it apparently came about because of the resident trainers.

College credit is still seen as a primary incentive for becoming involved in program activities, as are school district salary increments and other school district benefits. Formal courses are still an important delivery mode, but the data also suggest that on-the-job training with resident trainers is a viable alternative.

URBAN-RURAL DIFFERENCES

The Urban/Rural School Development Program was established to test the hypothesis that schools and communities can establish a parity relationship and plan and develop teacher training programs together. This hypothesis has been well tested, and the data concerning the parity process were presented in Chapter Four. An interesting phenomenon emerged as the teacher training data were analyzed. It was noted that considerable differences in the training activities occurred not only between "high parity" and "low parity" sites, but also between urban and rural sites. Consequently, the

Table 5.9

COMPARISON OF HOURS OF TRAINING
IN 12 URBAN AND 12 RURAL PROJECTS DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

Site	Number of Hours	Percent of Total	Mean Hours Per Project
Rural	18,877	71.6	1,573.1
Urban	7,471	28.4	622.6
Total	26,348	100.0	1,097.8

data that were amenable to analysis vis-a-vis urban and rural sites were explored. The following data represent 12 urban and 12 rural sites. One site was dropped from the analysis because it served both an urban and rural community.

Table 5.9 presents the data comparing the hours of training that were generated in 12 urban and 12 rural sites. It is startling to note that nearly three-fourths of the hours of training were found in the rural sites. Although these data may be slightly inflated by the existence of two or three highly active rural sites, a median split placed eight of the rural sites in the top 12 in terms of hours of training generated. This represents a clear edge to rural sites.

A series of analyses were performed that compared urban and rural sites vis-a-vis several of the dimensions that were presented earlier. Table 5.10 compares urban and rural sites with regard to the topic areas of training. These data suggest that even on a relational basis, rural sites were more active in the generation of programs for the development of administrative and community oriented skills than were their urban counterparts. The generation of hours of training in the teacher education area was consistent with the total hours of programs generated as presented in Table 5.10.

When the data were analyzed in regard to content area (Table 5.11), it was noted that rural programs were more active in the development of program activities relating to specialty curriculum areas. It is amazing that during the 16-month reporting period, urban projects reported no bilingual/bicultural activities, considering the national attention to the strategy of meeting local needs through emphasis on cultural pluralism.

The data presented in Table 5.12 analyze the delivery modes utilized in urban and in rural sites. From these data it can be seen that rural sites utilized formal courses and nonsite workshops more often than did their urban counterparts, even on a relational basis. On the other hand, site workshops were used more frequently by urban projects, as was visitation (it should be noted that a limited number of hours were devoted to visitation as a delivery mode). The "other" category, which was fairly evenly split, is difficult to analyze, although it is presumed that resident trainers accounted for a high proportion of these hours of training.

Table 5.10

COMPARISON OF DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS OF TRAINING BY TOPIC AREAS IN 12 URBAN AND 12 RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

	URBAN		RURAL	
	Number of Hours	Percent of Topic Area	Number of Hours	Percent of Topic Area
Administrative	65	14.9	371	85.1
Community-Oriented	175	12.2	1,263	87.8
Teacher Education	7,231	29.6	17,227	70.4

Table 5.11

COMPARISON OF DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS OF TRAINING BY CONTENT AREA IN 12 URBAN AND 12 RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

	URBAN		RURAL	
Content Area	Number of Hours	Percent of Content Area	Number of Hours	Percent of Content Area
Traditional Curriculum Areas (e.g., Reading, Math)	753	16.1	3,924	83.9
Specialty Curriculum Areas (e.g., Career Education, Physical Education)	176	5.2	3,183	94.8
Bilingual/Bicultural Education	-0-	-0-	844	100.0

Some interesting differences were noted in the types of trainers used to deliver program activities. In Table 5.13, it can be seen that Urban/Rural staff and school district personnel were used at a much higher level in urban programs than in rural programs. Rural programs tended to use a proportionately higher number of college and university professors and external consultants. The percentage figures relating to the Leadership Training Institute staff are not as important as they might appear because of the extremely small number of hours of training generated from this source.

Table 5.12

COMPARISON OF DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS OF TRAINING BY DELIVERY MODE IN 12 URBAN AND 12 RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

	URBAN		RURAL	
Delivery Mode	Number of Hours	Percent of Delivery Mode	Number of Hours	Percent of Delivery Mode
Site Workshop	783	39.9	1,179	60.1
Nonsite Workshop	97	7.6	1,172	92.4
Formal Course	1,078	16.7	5,360	83.3
Visitation	50	67.6	24	32.4
Presentation	233	22.8	787	77.2
Other	5,212	43.1	6,885	56.9

Table 5.13

COMPARISON OF DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS OF TRAINING BY TYPE OF TRAINER FOR 12 URBAN AND 12 RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

	URBAN		RURAL	
Type of Trainer	Number of Hours	Percent of Type	Number of Hours	Percent of Type
U/R Staff	3,011	87.0	451	13.0
LTI	36	24.8	109	75.2
College/ University Professor	1,102	19.2	4,636	80.8
School District Personnel	598	41.9	830	58.1
External Consultant	710	26.6	1,960	73.4
Resident Trainer	5,109	88.5	10,145	66.5
Other	439	38.3	708	61.7

Table 5.14 presents the data concerning the generation of hours of training as related to available incentives. Probably the most interesting difference is that school district benefits (not related to salary increments or direct stipends) were used at a much higher level in rural than in urban sites. Because many of these were non-concrete incentives that were informally awarded, it is suspected that they were less available in the more unionized urban projects than in the more traditional rural settings.

Table 5.15 presents the data concerning the distribution of participant hours of training by recipient for the 12 urban and the 12 rural sites.

Table 5.14

COMPARISON OF DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS OF TRAINING BY TYPE OF INCENTIVE FOR 12 URBAN AND 12 RURAL SITES DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

	URBAN		RURAL	
Type of Incentive	Number of Hours	Percent of Type	Number of Hours	Percent of Type
Salary Increment	497	29.7	1,175	70.3
College/ University Credit	1,755	29.1	4,278	70.9
Travel/Social	68	14.0	418	86.0
District Benefits	29	0.6	5,182	99.4
Direct Stipends	582	23.8	1,865	76.2
Other	556	27.4	1,473	72.6

Table 5.15

COMPARISON OF DISTRIBUTION OF HOURS OF TRAINING
BY RECIPIENT FOR 12 URBAN AND 12 RURAL SITES
DURING 16-MONTH PERIOD

	URBAN		RURAL	
Recipient	Number of Hours	Percent of Type	Number of Hours	Percent of Type
Teachers	77,114	52.9	68,612	47.1
Administrators	1,555	30.5	3,548	69.5
Community	6,734	12.7	46,364	87.3
U/R Staff	2,210	60.3	1,456	39.7
Teacher Aides	14,608	19.0	62,347	81.0
Students	63,689	34.3	121,882	65.7

Interestingly, urban sites generated more hours of activities for teachers and for Urban/Rural staff members than did the rural sites. Conversely, rural sites devoted much greater attention to activities for community personnel, administrators, teacher aides, and students (it should be noted that the number of student hours is very large). In fact, it appears that the differences occurred because rural sites simply devoted a greater amount of their resources to training activities for community participants, teacher aides, and students. Again, one can only speculate, but this may well be linked to the existence of teacher organizations and legally binding agreements between teachers and school districts in urban settings.

Summary

A comparison between urban and rural sites demonstrates that rural sites were more productive in the development of hours of training activities. Additionally, the rural site activities tended to be more diverse and to be aimed toward diverse groups rather than primarily teachers. Rural sites used formal courses and nonsite workshops more frequently than did their urban counterparts, and used Urban/Rural staff less frequently as trainers. The incentives utilized by rural sites were more frequently focused on informal school district benefits other than salary increments, while urban sites focused on both salary increments and college or university credit.

ARE CITY AND COUNTRY SO DIFFERENT?

The higher levels of productivity of the rural sites were an unexpected outcome of this study. Obviously one must ask if, in fact, the city and the country are that different. It appears that, at least as far as productivity in parity type, school focused, teacher education programs, they are. The question of why remains.

One analysis of this difference has already been performed.* Manriquez took the position that the differences could not be explained by single variables such as the administrative style of the manager; rather, he noted that the differences between urban and rural sites are quite complex. He suggested several areas that differentiate urban and rural sites, and that these areas probably interact to account for the great differences noted.

First, the facilitation of communication is a much simpler process in rural communities. People simply talk to people more easily and less formally. Consequently, many of the problems that arise in program development in a collaborative project such as Urban/Rural can be brought to the fore much more quickly and easily and can be resolved before becoming bogged down in the complexity of a formal council process.

Manriquez also noted that the range of values existing within a culture is much more narrowly conceived in rural areas than in urban areas. Residents tend to be less mobile, new community members enter the scene much less frequently, and the people who live in rural areas tend to have been there longer and know each other better, both as individuals and at the family level.

This observation leads naturally to the conclusion that in rural areas there is a greater congruence of educational goals, allowing for less encumbered decision making and, therefore, more universally supported program development. Also, the rural community is distinguished by a far smaller number of power groups. There are traditionally fewer formal organizations that try to influence the governmental process (it must be remembered that the Urban/Rural school-community council is, de facto, a governmental process); thus the councils in rural sites can function with more economy and ease.

Finally, the factors noted simply suggest a much lower level of formality, hence a lower level of "red tape." Decisions can be made more easily, more informally, and with less bureaucracy in a rural setting. Thus, when program goals and program activities were introduced in rural communities, it is likely that they were more congruent with the relatively homogeneous populations, and therefore were more acceptable and rather easily brought into being. A natural outcome of a less complex lifestyle is, of course, the lowered cost of program development. There can be little doubt that the complexity of the governance process in a large urban area simply costs more money, so that a smaller number of program activities can be developed with the same amount of money. It should be noted that the level of funding for urban and rural sites was fairly equal, with urban sites averaging close to $150,000 for the 1976-77 year and rural sites about $130,000.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN COUNCIL PROCESS AND PROGRAM PRODUCTIVITY

The focus of Chapter Four was the balance of communications between school and community personnel in council meetings. Balance in Questions Asked (indirect influence) and Statements Made (direct influence) was computed for each site. How was balance (parity) related to program productivity?

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* Bert N. Manriquez, op. cit.

Coefficients of correlation were computed between the indirect and direct influence indices and participant hours generated during the period covered by this study. These are presented in Table 5.16.

Despite the small number of sites, both coefficients are significant for the rural population at the .05 level; the direct influence index is significant at the .13 level for the urban population. This evidence suggests that balance in participation was definitely associated with program productivity in the rural sites and probably in the urban sites as well. The smaller rural councils generated many more activities than the urban sites and the range of activities was greater among rural sites, making the test of relationship between indicators of process parity and program productivity a clearer one. In addition, those rural sites with the greatest balance in parity developed more training for aides and community members than did those with lesser balance.

HOW URBAN/RURAL AND NON-URBAN/RURAL TEACHERS USE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

Yarger* studied 12 Urban/Rural and 21 non-Urban/Rural teachers from schools in the Dayton, Ohio, Public School System. The Urban/Rural teachers had training under the auspices of Urban/Rural, and the others had the normal inservice experiences provided in their area.

Yarger observed the teachers' use of instructional materials and interviewed them to ascertain how they planned to use materials and how their decisions to use them were reached.

She concluded that the Urban/Rural teachers have had more involvement with inservice training, spend more time working with students as individuals, and use a wider variety of materials and fewer games and tradebooks.

Generally, it can be inferred from her investigation that the Urban/Rural teachers in that project use materials differently and probably more productively than their non-Urban/Rural counterparts.

Table 5.16

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN INDICES OF PROCESS PARITY AND PARTICIPANT HOURS

Index	Rural Sites	Urban Sites
Indirect Influence	.69*	.23
Direct Influence	.68*	.45**

* p = .05 ** p = .13

* Gwendolyn Yarger. "Teachers' Use of Classroom Materials." Doctoral thesis, Syracuse University, 1977.

THE EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATION IN COUNCIL PROCESS ON THE BEHAVIORS OF COMMUNITY MEMBERS AND PROFESSIONALS

In spring 1976 Huguenin (see p. 42) conducted a study to determine the behavior of teachers and community members who were and were not exposed to the council experience, in a group of simulated problem-solving tasks. The purpose was to learn whether teachers and community members who had experienced the Urban/Rural problem-solving process would behave in a different way toward one another than persons who had not had this experience. Previous research has shown that teachers and administrators are likely to do most of the talking when community members and professionals are mixed, and that they generally get their way more often in decisions that are reached by the group. This is not always the case, of course, and varies with individuals in a given group, but the tendency for professionals to be most influential occurs in the majority of cases across large numbers of groups.

Urban/Rural was designed to be very different in this respect. The idea of parity or equality between teachers and parents was at the very core of the program from its inception. This parity was not left to chance, but was built into the Urban/Rural program. The hypothesis to be tested was that there would be greater equality of participation in problem-solving tasks in groups composed of persons who had had council experience.

Huguenin observed interaction patterns during actual council meetings and in 33 small groups in eight sites. All of these were urban sites in the Midwest and Northeast. Half of the groups consisted of SCC members, and the remainder of the groups were non-SCC participants. Each group was assigned the same two hypothetical tasks: (a) to decide who should be on a committee to select students for jobs in an Urban/Rural-sponsored enrichment program, and (b) to assume the role of that selection committee in order to decide the fate of one applicant, "Johnny Webster." The "committee" was to decide if Johnny should get the job, and, if so, what kind of supervision he should receive.

Each small group meeting was recorded and coded to determine (a) the role of the person speaking (community or professional), (b) the kind of comment made (statement or question), and (c) whether the comment was concerned with the content of the discussion (the task) or how to get the task done (procedure).

Composition of the Selection Committee

The first task assigned to the small groups was to decide on eight persons to serve as a selection committee for choosing students for an Urban/Rural-sponsored after-school enrichment program. The groups were to include roles (parents, teachers, students) rather than specific names. The roles chosen for the selection committees were divided into two categories: professional (administrators, teachers, counselors, social workers) and nonprofessional (parents, community representatives, students). The prediction was that SCC groups would choose committees more reflective of parity between the two categories than would the non-SCC groups. And, in fact, that is what occurred. Of the 29 groups who completed this task, 17 were SCC groups and 12 were non-SCC groups. Ten of the 17 SCC groups--and only one of the non-SCC groups--chose selection committees truly representative of a parity situation--four professionals and four nonprofessionals.

Overall, SCC groups chose a total of 70 professionals and 66 nonprofessionals; the non-SCC groups, on the other hand, chose 56 professionals and 39 nonprofessionals.

Small Group Interaction

In each category of comment the trend was toward more equal participation between professional educators and community representatives in the SCC groups than in the non-SCC groups. This balance was most marked in the area of procedural comments, where community representatives in SCC groups made eight percent more comments than their non-SCC counterparts.

Percent All Comments Made by:

		Professional Educators	Community Representatives
In:	SCC Groups	62%	38%
	Non-SCC Groups	68%	32%

Percent Task Comments Made by:

In:	SCC Groups	58%	42%
	Non-SCC Groups	62%	38%

Percent Procedural Comments Made by:

In:	SCC Groups	66%	34%
	Non-SCC Groups	74%	26%

If just the SCC groups from those sites with the highest degree of influence shared between professionals and nonprofessionals are extracted and their behavior examined, an even more impressive shift toward equal participation is noted.

In Sites Where Influence Most Shared, Percent Task Comments Made by:

Professional Educators	Community Representatives
54%	46%

In Sites Where Influence Most Shared, Percent Procedural Comments Made by:

Professional Educators	Community Representatives
55%	45%

Urban/Rural does appear to make a difference toward equality of interaction between teachers and parents, not only in structure but in practice. In groups composed of SCC members from situations where they experience a real sharing of power between the two groups, their interaction patterns are close to equal.

Perceptions of Leadership

Among the questions asked of small group participants at the conclusion of the discussion were: who did they think had the "best ideas," who did the most to "guide and direct the group," and who was the "overall leader"? The focus was on the role of the person chosen in each category. Preliminary analyses were focused on only first choices. In each area a slightly greater percentage of community representatives were likely to be named as first choices in each leadership category in SCC groups than in non-SCC groups. However, in each area, professional educators still clearly dominated as perceived leaders.

Percent Each Category Was Chosen as Having "Best Ideas":

		Professional Educators	Community Representatives	"Everyone" or "All"
In:	SCC Groups	50%	36%	14%
	Non-SCC Groups	59%	33%	8%

Percent Each Category Was Chosen as Doing Most To "Guide and Direct":

In:	SCC Groups	66%	30%	4%
	Non-SCC Groups	78%	16%	6%

Percent Each Category Was Chosen as "Overall Leader":

In:	SCC Groups	68%	28%	4%
	Non-SCC Groups	68%	21%	11%

The results strongly suggest that a greater equality of interaction occurred between professionals and nonprofessionals who had had the SCC experience than between those who had not. We cannot make a solid inference that this finding wsa due to the Urban/Rural process (it may have been that persons who would interact more equally were on the council in the first place), but there were very consistent results in the ability of council-experienced professionals and community members to bridge the gaps that normally separate them.

SUMMARY

The Urban/Rural programs generated a great number of teacher training activities--over 800 altogether. The sites varied widely in training productivity, with a very few producing few activities and others being highly productive.

Urban/Rural differences were conspicuous. The rural sites generated more training activities and for more clientele. They drew more often on university personnel as resident trainers, whereas urban sites tended to rely on their large supervisory staffs for much of the training provided.

Both urban and rural sites solved certain of the persistent problems of inservice teacher education--especially in devising ways of bringing training to the site where teachers work, including varieties of role groups in the training activities, and solving the especially vexing problems of time for training.

Most important, probably, is that differences in the ability of the projects to achieve process parity--relative equality in communication and decision-making power between community members and teachers--was directly related to productivity in teacher training and training terms. Those sites which were characterized by more equality produced the most activities. It did not seem to matter whether community or teachers or education professionals dominated; either kind of dominance resulted in lower program productivity.

Yarger's study of the teacher's use of materials provided evidence that the Urban/Rural teachers in one urban site used instructional materials differently than did teachers who had not been exposed to the Urban/Rural brand of training. This finding is especially interesting because the use of materials provides a relatively independent criterion of the effects of training and is evidence that classroom behavior may have been affected by Urban/Rural process.

In addition, participation in the councils appears to have affectd the behavior of teachers and community members in problem-solving groups. Huguenin's investigation of several of the urban sites produced consistent findings that participation in the council process itself was educational, in the sense that it reduced the disparity between community members and teachers in small group interactions.

Thus, the basic concept of Urban/Rural--that the achievement of parity in interaction between community members and education professionals would affect the energy which would flow into teacher training and reduce alienation between community members and education professionals--appears to be partially affirmed by the set of investigations reported in Chapter Five.

. . . . Community members report that inservice education is more successful in the Urban/Rural projects . . . .

. . . . Community members feel they should be involved in shared governance of inservice education . . . .

. . . . Involved community members seek even more involvement . . . .

. . . . Involved community members are more favorable toward teacher organizations and teachers . . . .

. . . . Involved community members support more options for solving released time problems . . . .

CHAPTER SIX

COMMUNITY MEMBERS SOLVE INSERVICE PROBLEMS: HOW DOES URBAN/RURAL COMPARE WITH CALIFORNIA AND GEORGIA?

Bruce R. Joyce

The community members associated with the Urban/Rural sites were part of or saw at first hand an attempt to bring community members and professionals together to create staff development programs. As a result of this experience, are they any different from other community members in their views of inservice?

We are unable to approach this question definitively, because we have no measure of change. However, in May 1977, as the Urban/Rural program was drawing to a close, the decision was made to survey parents from Urban/Rural schools and to compare the responses with a large sample of parents in California and Georgia, states containing a great variety of schools and communities.

The chief question was: Do the Urban/Rural parents differ in their approaches to inservice education and its problems from the parents from randomly selected schools in the two comparison states?

In a random sample of California schools, Georgia schools, and all of the schools in the Urban/Rural program, one classroom in each school was selected at random, and 10 questionnaires sent via the children to their parents. The 928 questionnaires returned represent about 55 percent of those delivered to the schools for transmission to the teachers and thus through the children to the parents.

The purpose of the survey was to investigate parents' beliefs about the staff development activities which are experienced by their children's teachers and to solicit their opinions about several current issues in inservice education.

RESPONSES AND ERRORS

Although the questionnaire included several complex items about the governance of inservice teacher education activities, alternatives for funding, and ways of providing teachers with time and incentives, respondents were able to handle the questions. The error rate was very low: the average respondent completed 31 of the 33 items in the questionnaires. Altogether the 928 parents produced only 153 uncodable items, an average of less than one-fifth of an item per questionnaire. Also, they completed the questionnaire fully; the number of items not completed did not increase as the questionnaire proceeded.

The questionnaire apparently was intelligible to the respondents (as indicated by the very low error rate per item). Also since nearly every item was completed it can be assumed the questionnaire was taken seriously.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

Almost 90 percent of the Urban/Rural respondents were women, as were about four-fifths of the California and Georgia parents who answered the

questionnaire. Most were between 20 and 55 years of age, and 90 percent were the parents of school-age children.

They represented all races. Ten percent of the Urban/Rural sample were Native Americans, as were 2.4 percent of the California population and 1.3 percent of the Georgia group. In the California sample, 2.6 percent were of Asian origin, compared with 0.6 percent of the Urban/Rural population and none of the Georgians. About a third of the Urban/Rural respondents were Black, as were about 7 percent of the Californians and about 20 percent of the Georgians. None of the Georgians were Spanish speaking, but nearly 11 percent of the Californians and about 9 percent of the Urban/Rural persons were.

The sample included all educational levels. About 12 percent of the entire sample had completed elementary school only. Thirty-five percent of the Californians, 28 percent of the Urban/Rural respondents, and about 20 percent of the Georgians reported "some college." Fourteen percent of the Urban/Rural group, 17 percent of the Californians, and 16 percent of the Georgians had bachelor's degrees.

They came from every type of community. Many of the Georgians and Urban/Rural persons (over 40 percent) live in rural areas, and the rest of the sample are from small towns, cities, and suburban areas. About a quarter of the California and Georgia respondents and nearly 60 percent of the Urban/Rural persons live in what is termed the "inner city."

How much inservice education do these community members and parents believe that teachers receive?

Nearly all the respondents feel that continuing inservice education is necessary to maintain and improve the quality of education. About 45 percent believe that teachers need a great deal of inservice education to maintain and improve their skills, and about 40 percent that they need moderate amounts.

About a third of the respondents believe the teachers receive quite a bit of inservice education and about 40 percent that they receive a "moderate amount."

Are inservice programs successful?

About a third of the Georgia and California community members feel that inservice programs for their teachers have been quite successful; another third believe that their teachers experience moderately or somewhat successful inservice programs. By comparison, over half of the Urban/Rural persons (who have been more heavily involved in the planning and implementation of inservice programs for teachers) feel that they have been quite successful.

Do community members feel they should be represented on boards governing the inservice education of teachers?

The answer is resoundingly yes. The vast majority of all the samples (about 80 percent) believe community members should be formally represented on governing boards. Two-thirds think they should be represented in planning and carrying out inservice activities.

About 90 percent indicated that collaborative decision-making boards should establish the goals of inservice education, and about two-thirds that those boards should have control over budget and personnel.

Does experience with collaborative governance affect attitudes toward it?

Within the Urban/Rural programs community members have had greater experience in collaborative decision making than is customary. This experience apparently increases the desire for participation and a belief in its worth. Nearly all of the Urban/Rural parents believe that community members should be involved on boards which would have considerable amounts of control of inservice programs.

Should teachers plan and carry out their own inservice programs?

More than 80 percent of the respondents thought so. However, 60 percent of the Californians and Georgians, as compared with about 40 percent of the Urban/Rural population, felt that inservice education should not be a matter for collective bargaining. Possibly the experience of the Urban/Rural group in collaborative work with teachers created greater sympathy for teachers and their organizations.

Who should pay for inservice education?

The questionnaire presented several inservice goals to the respondents and asked whether they thought individual teachers, school districts, states, or teachers organizations should pay for those types of inservice education.

The majority of the respondents thought states or school districts should pay for inservice education designed to help develop teaching or other job-related skills, and for programs intended to help schools and school programs change and improve. The majority also felt that inservice education whose purpose is to help the teacher obtain a new or better position should be paid for by the individual teachers, and that inservice workshops run by teachers organizations should be paid for by the organization itself.

In other words, where inservice education is to improve skills or implement new programs, the public generally appears to believe that it should be paid for by the school district or the state; the teacher or the teachers organization should pay for personal development or career advancement activities.

How shall teachers be freed for inservice education?

The parents were asked about a variety of options:

1. Providing teachers released time while school is in session, with instruction for students provided by team members or others.

A little more than half of the respondents believed this is an appropriate solution, but a substantial minority disagreed. However, nearly three-fourths of the Urban/Rural parents approved of this option.

2. Providing on-the-job inservice training during school hours without affecting instructional time.

About two-thirds of the community members considered this an appropriate option.

3. Closing school for an afternoon or a day on a regular basis, such as once or twice a month.

Less than 40 percent of the Californians and Georgians believed this an appropriate solution, but almost two-thirds of the Urban/Rural parents believed it is.

4. Paying teachers to be part of summer inservice programs.

Over two-thirds of all respondents--80 percent of the Urban/Rural community members--supported this option.

5. Paying teachers for weekends and vacation inservice time.

More than half of the Californians and Georgians and over two-thirds of the Urban/Rural community members felt this solution is appropriate.

In general, then, many were suspicious of giving teachers released time during the day and having instruction provided by substitutes or others. Closing school for an afternoon or a day on a regular basis was least popular. However, most of the respondents approved the idea of paying teachers to be part of summer or weekend programs. More of the Urban/Rural parents approved all options than did the comparison populations.

SUMMARY

Continuing staff development is recognized by these parents as a necessity for maintaining and improving education. The majority think that inservice programs need improvement.

A vast majority believe that community members should share in governance at a local level, including many details of management. To increase time for training, most would prefer to pay teachers for summer programs rather than provide released time from present instructional programs. They support the responsibility of states and school districts to bear the costs of programs designed to maintain and improve teaching skills.

The parents from the schools which have experienced the collaborative decision-making process of the Urban/Rural programs displayed the following differences from the California and Georgia parents:

1. They were even more favorable toward community participation in the governance of inservice education at the local school level.

2. They had more positive attitudes toward present inservice programs.

3. They were more favorable toward teachers organizations.

4. They supported more options for freeing teachers for inservice education and making it "part of the job."

CHAPTER SEVEN

. . . . Teachers, community members and higher education faculty are in general agreement about the state of inservice education. . . .

. . . . Teachers prefer other teachers for inservice education but higher education faculty members feel they are competent to help and not out of touch with the schools. . . .

. . . . Levels of inservice education are generally very low. Few places have developed on-site, job-embedded or job-related inservice education . . . .

. . . . Extra money alone does not generate higher levels of inservice activity . . . .

. . . . In Urban/Rural the shared governance combined with financial and staff resources to generate higher levels of inservice activity . . . .

CHAPTER SEVEN

TEACHERS SOLVE INSERVICE PROBLEMS: A COMPARISON OF CALIFORNIA, MICHIGAN, GEORGIA, AND URBAN/RURAL TEACHERS*

Sam J. Yarger and Bruce R. Joyce

The basic mechanism of the Urban/Rural program was inservice education. Teachers, school administrators, teaching aides, parents, and other community members received training in the programs described in Chapter Five.

In spring 1977, teachers, college professors, and community members were surveyed in three states--California, Georgia, and Michigan--and in the 25 Urban/Rural School Development Projects. The purpose of the survey was to determine the extent and kinds of inservice education being received by these populations in order to compare teachers in the Urban/Rural projects with those in the three states. The basic questions to be answered were how much and what kinds of inservice education were received by these groups, and whether the efforts of the Urban/Rural School Development Program result in a different picture from those of the three comparison states, which represented a wider range of size and educational structure.

Questionnaires were distributed to the team managers in each of the Urban/Rural projects, with instructions to pass these on to those teachers who were involved in the Urban/Rural schools, whether or not they had been active participants in the Urban/Rural activities. In addition, a sampling plan was drawn up for California, Georgia, and Michigan, whose schools were sampled randomly to provide a confidence interval of ± 5%.

The sample included 140 schools in California, 71 in Michigan, and 63 in Georgia. Questionnaires were returned by teachers in 107 of the California schools (76 percent of those sampled), 40 (64 percent) of the Georgia schools, and 44 (62 percent) of the Michigan schools. Altogether, respondents included 1,611 teachers from California, 664 from Georgia, 818 from Michigan, and 752 from the Urban/Rural projects. Of the schools from which returns were received, 55 percent of the teachers responded from California, 61 percent from Georgia, and 75 percent from Michigan. A delivery problem made it difficult to compute the response made from the Urban/Rural schools and all their teachers.

Comparing the number of responses with the total number of teachers employed in the schools, the response rate in California was 42.3 percent, in Georgia it was 38.2 percent, and in Michigan, 46.3 percent. Additionally, although the questionnaire was long and fairly complex, nearly all respondents from all four samples completed the instruments. Neither the error rate nor the nonresponse rate within items rose as the questionnaire progressed.

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* A more extensive report will appear as: Bruce Joyce, Sam Yarger, Ken Howey, Michael McKibbin, Karen Harbeck, and Robert Bush. Inservice Teacher Education: Practices and Problems. Syracuse, N.Y.: National Council of the States on Inservice Education, 1978.

Brief Observations of Inservice Practices in California, Michigan, and Georgia

1. Teachers in these states have been in their present positions (not just in education) for a considerable period of time, with nearly half having occupied the same jobs for 10 years or more. We know of no stronger documentation of the aging of our profession, not only in terms of teachers' work with it but in terms of their relationships to the specific institutions in which they work.

2. Astonishingly enough, community members, higher education personnel, and teachers essentially agreed on the state of inservice education and its basic problems. In other words, members of those varied role groups have similar perceptions of inservice education in their sites and its problems. The states appear to display about the same profiles of inservice teacher education activity, and their populations have very similar views about solutions to the important inservice education problems.

3. The major difference that emerged is that higher education faculty members believe themselves to be much more competent to help teachers in all aspects of inservice education than the teachers believe them to be. Teachers prefer other teachers for the more job-embedded varieties of inservice but are not unfavorable toward higher education faculty members with respect to general competency training. The faculty members, however, believe that they are competent to provide help on all levels but that the structure of the situation hinders their input.

   The faculty members' considerable experience in teaching (an average of 10 years or more) tends to support their belief in their knowledgeability about the schools. Further, preservice students tend to feel that college faculty members are as knowledgeable about the schools and as competent in helping them as are the school personnel with whom they are associated.

4. Except for the Urban/Rural program, there are very few differences between districts of various sizes, in either inservice practice or stances toward issues. Size is not an important factor.

   Similarly, teachers of different ages and sexes appear to have the same kind of experience and receive similar help during their careers. Their views of how to solve common problems of inservice education are similar as well. Ethnicity, also, is not a strong factor.

5. All role groups are generally agreed that there is presently a relatively low level of inservice education. Teachers feel they received little help when they were beginning to teach and are presently receiving very little. A third of all California teachers have not been to a higher education institution for any kind of inservice education during the past three years.

   Very few teachers are receiving the help in terms of the strongest training options, that is, those which use either instructional systems that are carefully researched and developed

or the more powerful media. There is very little analysis of teaching, and what little there is is concentrated in relatively few places.

This finding is manifested particularly in teachers' beliefs that the major help they have received--either (a) when they began to teach, (b) when they were oriented to their present roles, or (c) in services that help them to maintain and improve their present skills--were delivered by other teachers. Nearly all of the present formal investment in inservice education provides services from school districts and institutions of higher education (IHEs) to teachers. Thus, if teachers are receiving their major help from other teachers, then the major formal systems of inservice education are not delivering, at least in the teachers' perceptions, as much service as is being delivered through the informal system of teachers working within the same situation. In other words, it appears clear that the present investment of school district and higher education resources is not nearly as effective as the informal system which operates automatically within any given teaching situation.

6. Relatively few teachers have experienced collaborative arrangements for the development and implementation of inservice programs, and few community members, outside the Urban/Rural population, have been so involved. The major delivery problems, such as time for training, have not been solved in many situations.

7. Nearly all role groups appear to be very open to most of the options of process, substance, and ways of releasing persons for delivery. Although almost all personnel report a separation between classroom teachers and the school district and higher education mechanisms that have been set up to serve them, nearly all of the personnel are open to ways of bridging the gap.

8. Higher education personnel want to help and feel competent to do so. Judging from this, the nation's 45,000 education professors must contain within them a large number of persons who can be of considerable assistance provided they are utilized properly.

9. Finally, the teachers were asked to offer an impression of the "state of the health" of inservice education. Between a quarter and a third offered a positive impression (with the exception of Michigan, where the figure was less than 15 percent), with a similar number indicating a negative impression (Michigan was higher, at about 44 percent). Between a third and a half of the teachers felt inservice education is in fair health. There was a high degree of consistency between California and Georgia teachers, with Michigan teachers being somewhat more negative.

STATISTICAL COMPARISON OF URBAN/RURAL TEACHERS WITH EACH OF THE STATES

For the continuous variables, t-tests were computed comparing the Urban/Rural teachers with the teachers from each of the three states. The

comparisons were aimed at the particular question, "Are there systematic differences between the Urban/Rural population and those of each of the three comparison groups?"

Urban/Rural and Michigan

There are 29 substantive variables relative to the amounts of inservice education received during the period covered by the questionnaires. In 25 of the 29 cases, the Urban/Rural teachers reported they received more inservice education than did the Michigan teachers, and in the other four cases the groups were about equal. It appears that the Urban/Rural teachers receive more of most types of experience. The Michigan teachers more often experience the principal in an active role in inservice education, but the Urban/Rural teachers were more supportive of the principal as an organizer, participant, and conductor.

The two groups, however, had similar perceptions about most of the problems of inservice education. The Urban/Rural teachers tended to be more favorable toward state and federal involvement and felt that their communities are much more active, but that they should be more active still.

Urban/Rural and Georgia

The situation is similar here. The two groups received about the same amount of inservice education as they began their careers, but the Urban/Rural teachers presently receive more from both supervisors and professors. Again, with respect to the 29 variables dealing with the substance of inservice education, in 23 cases the Urban/Rural teachers exceeded the teachers from Georgia. They have had more experience with school district offerings, university offerings, and those developed by teachers organizations and community members. In addition, the more experience they have had, the more they are favorable toward it.

Urban/Rural and California

These results are almost identical with the comparisons made between the teachers from the other two states and those from Urban/Rural. The Urban/Rural teachers received more help and were more favorable toward the different options for inservice education, although the teachers in both groups favored most of the important options for providing inservice training.

In general, when the mean responses of the Urban/Rural teachers are compared with the teachers from each of the three states, the results are consistent. There is no aspect of inservice education in which the teachers from any of the states reported a greater level of involvement than did the Urban/Rural teachers. Of the 87 specific comparisons made, the Urban/Rural teachers exceeded the teachers from the comparison groups in 75. Additionally, the Urban/Rural teachers received more help from and were more favorable toward supervisors, IHE personnel, community, and state persons in instructional or decision-making roles. Judging from this self-report, the Urban/Rural program was able to provide a consistently higher level of service than the states. A comparison of the Urban/Rural program with the ECE and non-ECE programs in California (where considerable

financial resources have been provided to schools for inservice purposes) suggests that money alone is not responsible for the difference.

WHAT OTHER FACTORS MIGHT HAVE BEEN INVOLVED?

We need to consider whether it was the Urban/Rural program that made the difference or whether there were other factors which might have accounted for the differences reported. Was it simply a matter of the money spent, or the demographic composition of the schools? Or was it differences in the teachers with respect to age, sex, or race? The samples in the comparison states were large enough to permit us to make a number of comparisons in order to explore these questions.

Did Money Make a Difference?

California's Early Childhood Education program provides resources to elementary schools to improve their instructional programs with the stipulation that school-community councils will be formed and that a certain proportion of the resources will be used for staff development. The California ECE elementary schools were compared with non-ECE schools with respect to all variables in both the Community and the Teacher Questionnaires. The two populations were generally quite similar in their responses. There were no marked differences in the responses of the California community members or teachers between the ECE and non-ECE schools, although there were some minor differences. Community members felt there was more inservice education and that it was more successful in the ECE schools, but the reports of the teachers do not support this. Community participation may have changed perceptions to an extent that is out of line with the substance actually delivered. While the evidence is not conclusive, it appears that in the case of the California ECE program the formation of councils and the provision of money did not achieve results of the magnitude that occurred in the Urban/Rural program.

Type of School

Size of school worked in and type of clientele, especially differentiated by income level, was correlated with responses in California, Michigan, and Georgia. The correlations were uniformly low. Types of inservice education received, attitudes toward inservice education, and solutions to its problems were apparently not related to the demographic characteristics of the schools. It is unlikely, therefore, that the differences between the Urban/Rural program, where persons worked largely with lower income groups in rural and urban settings, and those in the comparison samples were due simply to the demographic differences in the Urban/Rural program.

Age, Sex, and Experience

These variable were also correlated with responses from the three states and the Urban/Rural population. Again, the coefficients were

uniformly low. The age and experience of teachers do not appear to influence the kinds of inservice education received, either as beginning teachers or as mature inservice persons. Sex differences were slight, as were ethnic differences. It is unlikely, therefore, that the Urban/Rural differences were caused because of differences in the demographic makeup of the teachers, their years in service, or the situations in which they worked.

SUMMARY

We conclude that it is likely that the differences found in the survey are due to the application of the Urban/Rural model, not simply to funding or the special settings in which the teachers worked. Throughout all of the samples, it appears that the more experience the persons have with various types of inservice education, the more positive they are toward them. For example, those persons who have analyzed their teaching appear to be more favorable toward that practice and wish more experience with it.

It is possible to consider the Urban/Rural experiment as one of breaking a cycle of apathy in community members and teachers. By getting things going, the Urban/Rural process may have made people more positive toward different kinds of activity and the participation of wider varieties of personnel. The Urban/Rural personnel appear to be open to a wider spectrum of options, and the results, while they by no means provide a panacea for the problems of inservice education, appear to be uniformly positive. There is definitely something in the Urban/Rural model which is worth conserving for future efforts.

CHAPTER EIGHT

. . . . Assessing student achievement is a complex problem . . . .

. . . . Where inferences can validly be made, the Urban/Rural site apparently had a positive affect on children's achievement . . . .

CHAPTER EIGHT

IMPACT ON STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT: A COMPLEX DESIGN PROBLEM AND SOME PROMISING RESULTS

Muata Weusi-Puryear

Inclusion of a student achievement analysis component in the evaluation of the Urban/Rural program is based on the conviction that a major purpose of the inservice training of teachers is to increase the skill levels of the students who come in contact with these teachers. The conviction is important--but studying student achievement in a national project based on decentralized decision making involves some complex practical problems.

The first problem concerns the state of the art of measuring academic skills--it simply is not as precise as we would like it to be. This is a particular problem when trying to measure the skills of students of low socioeconomic status. The best measuring devices available seem to give fairly good information about middle- and upper-class students; however, they are at best very rough indicators of skill levels of lower-class students (the Urban/Rural population).

The second and perhaps even larger problem with "looking at the bottom line" in this particular project is that this type of analysis was not initially contemplated. For that reason, there was no uniform, systematic testing (even using inadequate measuring devices) throughout the life of the project. As a result, the best we could hope for was to find data that had been gathered by the school districts as a matter of course. These data consisted of nationally normed grade average scores from standardized achievement tests which were given to all students in the district and for which adequate records were maintained over the life of the project.

These two problems extremely limited the scope of the study. Anyone wishing to include a student achievement component in program documentation should establish a working statistical model prior to the beginning of training. Appropriate tests should be obtained or developed to measure program objectives; the tests should be routinely administered to all students involved in the project; the test results should be filed in an orderly fashion; and a mechanism should be established for evaluation and feedback throughout the life of the project.

DESCRIPTION OF THE STATISTICAL APPROACH

The model chosen for this analysis required the following sequence of events for each site:

1. Choose at random a number of teachers from those who received more than the median amount of training.

2. For each of these teachers, select two classes--the class just prior to the teachers' inservice training and the class at the end of the inservice training.

3. For the students in each class, obtain the scores from the tests the students took at the end of the school year just prior to their

exposure to the subject teacher (pretest) and the scores from the tests they took at the end of the school year in which they were exposed to the subject teacher (posttest).

The analysis then compares the effect after training in two ways: (a) the posttest minus pretest, or gain scores; and (b) pretest vs. posttest (a geometric interpretation of the regression line). The analysis requires that we be able to determine which students were in the teacher's class prior to the Urban/Rural inservice training; that the district did systematic testing; and that these test scores be available to an onsite data collector.

The model is capable of determining statistically significant differences, but it will be difficult to say these differences were the result of the inservice training unless that was the major innovation at the site during the period. For this reason the Stanford LTI tried to use sites for which Urban/Rural was the main training program. To put it another way, sites that had a great deal of confounding of training (usually as a result of other federal projects working with the same teachers) were avoided. Sites were also eliminated from consideration when the direction of their training was not the same as even the theoretical direction of the measuring devices which were available. For this reason the LTI chose only sites that tried to give inservice training on "how to teach reading skills or arithmetic computations."

From the original 25 sites, after removing those sites with a great deal of confounding of other projects and those sites whose training efforts were not consistently concerned with reading or mathematical skills throughout the life of the project, we were left with 15 sites to consider. These 15 sites were asked to select a local onsite data collector. Arrangements were made to train these persons at regional meetings in the collection of the data and an understanding of the proposed statistical model. Training was oriented toward a consideration of their local data problems.

It became clear during these training workshops that several sites could not be included in the study because of the scarcity of their data. In some cases the scarcity was the result of the data collectors' inability to determine which students were in certain teachers' classes prior to the Urban/Rural program; in other cases they discovered that the standardized testing believed to have taken place either had not been done at all or had not been done systematically throughout the life of the project--or, in some cases, that the data collected were no longer available. Five sites were eliminated because available data were too sparse.

In still other cases, it became clear that because of the political nature of the sites or the sensitivity of the district to releasing data to any "outside agency" it was not possible to obtain any meaningful data. In one site it did not become clear that the data would not be made available until the collector was actually in the field digging out individual student records. Five sites were unable to release data.

The five remaining sites collected and transmitted data to the LTI. The data were coded and stored. At this point it was discovered that one of the sites had misinterpreted the model and had collected only posttest information from each student record. The site had to be eliminated from the study, leaving four for which analysis was possible.

Of these remaining sites only one had really substantial data. Only a few measures per student were recorded by the other three districts. Other

problems with some of the data also restricted the amount of information we could obtain, as will become apparent in the pages which follow.

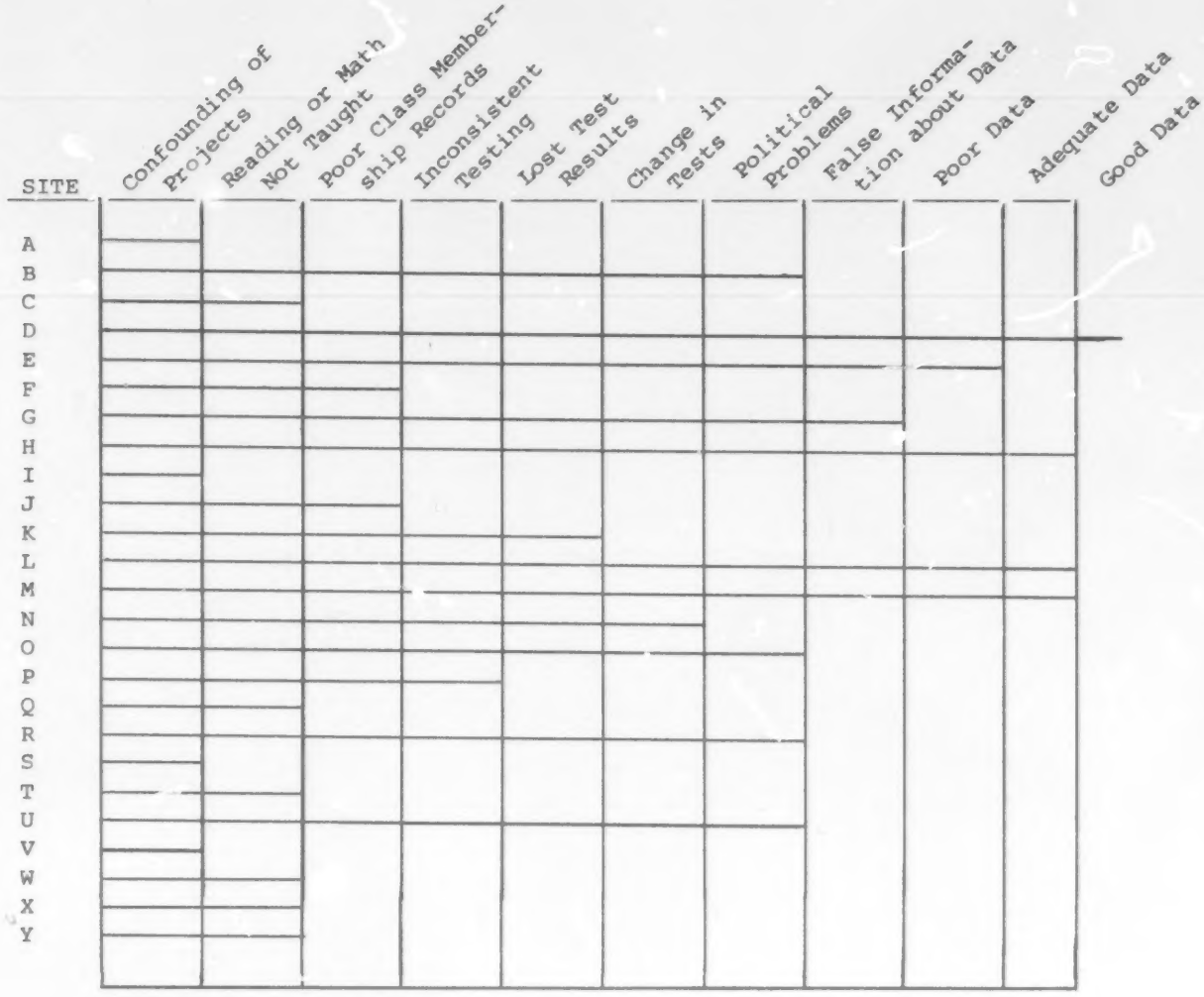
The process of sifting sites for which a meaningful analysis of student data could be made is depicted in Figure 8.1.

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATION OF COLLECTED DATA

The following five criteria were used to evaluate the collected data. These criteria were chosen to be consistent with the general educational objectives of the Urban/Rural project and relevant to the particular type of data collected.

Figure 8.1

SITES MEETING CRITERIA FOR MEANINGFUL ANALYSIS OF ACHIEVEMENT DATA



Criterion 1: An increase in the percent of students with positive gain

As a result of the inappropriateness of some of the measures (as expressed in nationally normed grade levels), the gain scores for some of the students (both before training and after training) were zero or negative. The problem was discussed with other researchers who had processed data of this type in the past. It apparently is not an unusual situation when the scores of low socioeconomic students in this country are being examined.

This criterion was applied whenever the pretraining tests were the same (the same publisher) and given one year apart; the post-training tests were the same and given one year apart; and the percent of students with positive gain was less than 100 percent in the pretraining tests. The criterion is satisfied if and only if the percent of students who had positive gains in the post-training class exceeded the percent of students who had positive gains in the pretraining class by an amount that represented at least one student in the pretraining class. For example, if in the pretraining class there were 25 students, then the criterion is met if and only if the number of students with positive gain in the post-training class is 4 percent or more greater than the percent of students with positive gain in the pretraining class (1/25 represents 4 percent of the pretraining class).

Criterion 2: An increase in class mean gain

This criterion applies only to those cases for which the pretraining tests are one year apart and the post-training tests are one year apart. The criterion is met if and only if the average (arithmetical mean) gain is greater for the post-training class than for the pretraining class.

Criterion 3: A decrease in the slope of the regression line

This criterion applies only to those cases for which the pretraining tests are one year apart and the post-training tests are one year apart. The criterion is met if and only if the slope of the regression line for the post-training class is less than (more negative than) the slope of the regression line for the pretraining class. This phenomenon is most likely to have occurred in those cases for which those post-training students who did poorly at the beginning of the school year did better at the end of the school year than would have been predicted based on the performance of the pretraining class.

Criterion 4: An increase in the intercept

The intercept is the place at which the regression line crosses the y-axis. It is a theoretical posttest score that results from an interpolation of the pretest versus posttest data and that corresponds to a pretest score of "0." The word theoretical is used because it is not actually possible to receive a "0" score on the pretest. For example, if a student in a fourth grade class got absolutely no problems correct on a test, his or her nationally normed grade level might be 1.5 (instead of zero or kindergarten).

Criterion 5: A decrease in the absolute value of the correlation between pretest and posttest scores

This criterion is based on the following consideration: a perfect correlation of positive or negative one would indicate that students' posttest scores were completely determined by their pretest scores; on the other hand, a correlation of zero would indicate complete independence of pretest and posttest scores. Thus a movement toward zero correlation is considered desirable.

TEST OF STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

Suppose we counted the number of times a teacher failed to meet a criterion and the number of times the same teacher successfully met that criterion. If the numbers were 1 and 9 respectively, it would be clear that the teacher's performance with respect to that criterion could safely be called positive. If the numbers were 5 and 5 respectively, it would also be clear that the teacher's performance could not be judged either positive or negative. The question arises as to what combinations of counts represent significantly positive or significantly negative performance with respect to a criterion. Similarly, in looking at a teacher's overall performance, when are we justified in saying that the evaluation is positive or negative, and when should we be cautious--say there is no significant difference?

We have attempted to solve the significant difference problem in the following manner: we take as the null hypothesis that "the chances for successfully meeting criteria are equal to the chances for failure to meet criteria." The counting of the failures and successes then forms a binomial distribution with the probability of success or failure for each trial equal to .5. We then compute the probability of getting the given number of successes in the given number of trials. We reject the null hypothesis whenever that probability is less than 0.05. When we reject the hypothesis that the probability of success equals the probability of failure, we must accept one of two possibilities--(a) the probability of success is greater than the probability of failure (positive), or (b) the probability of success is less than the probability of failure (negative).

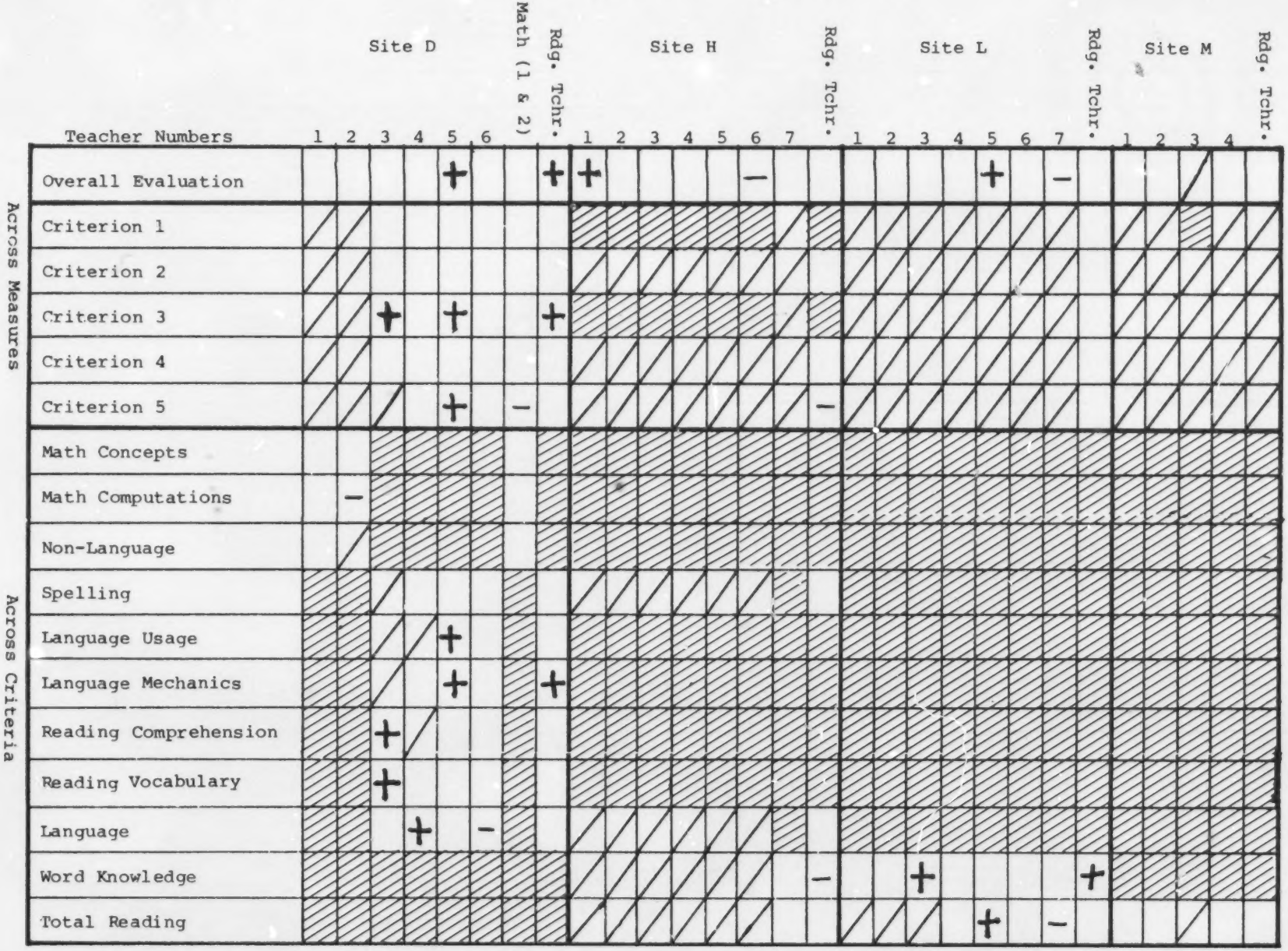
The probability of four successes in four trials is 0.0625, and the probability of five successes in five trials is 0.0313, hence this test for significance can be applied only when there are at least five trials.

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS RESULTS

Figure 8.2 summarizes the significant differences found in analyzed findings in the four sites in which adequate data were available. A "+" indicates that the direction of the significance is favorable to the objectives of the Urban/Rural project, and a "-" indicates that the direction of the significance is unfavorable to the objectives of the Urban/Rural project.

A cell of Figure 8.2 is shaded if it was not possible to apply any criterion. Several elements of the figure were such that, although it was possible to apply criteria, the number of applicable criteria was less than

Figure 8.2
SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES FOR FOUR SITES



five and thus we could not determine statistical significance; these elements have been marked with a single diagonal line.

To review: The four sites are the non-confounded sites in which the districts did systematic relevant testing, the test scores were available to the LTI, and the record keeping was good enough to determine which students were in which teachers' classes prior to the Urban/Rural inservice training. With these data at hand, it was possible then to compare the effects of teachers prior to inservice training with the effects at the end of the inservice training. The effects are restricted to those reflected in nationally normed grade average scores from standard achievement tests.

The teachers were chosen at random from among those who received more than the median amount of inservice training (for their respective sites). In each case we are comparing the pre- and posttest scores for a teacher's class just prior to training with the pre- and posttest scores of that teacher's most recent class.

Five criteria were used. The first two criteria refer to gain scores (posttest score minus pretest score); the next two criteria to a geometric interpretration of a plot of the pretest scores vs. the posttest scores; the last to the correlation between pretest scores and posttest scores. The criteria are:

1. An increase in the percent of students with positive gain

2. An increase in class mean gain

3. A decrease in the slope of the regression line

4. An increase in the intercept

5. A decrease in the absolute value of the correlation between pretest and posttest scores.

The criteria are all stated in positive terms so that individual measures across criteria as well as individual criteria across measures can be examined.

Interpretation of Results

The results summarized in Figure 8.2 are interpreted with respect to the question: "Did the inservice training provided by the Urban/Rural project affect student achievement and, if so, was that effect positive or negative?"

A cell of Figure 8.2 is marked "+" only if there is a significantly large number of times for which criteria were met, and "-" only if there is a significantly small number of times for which criteria were met. It is unmarked if the number of times for which criteria were met is neither significantly large nor significantly small. A cell is shaded if no criteria could be applied, and is marked with a diagonal slash if too few criteria applied to make a determination of statistical significance.

Examining the "Across Measures" columns of Figure 8.2, we see that two of the criteria--criterion 3 and criterion 5--show some significant differences. The student achievement data indicate that for Site D the reading teachers in general and two of the four reading teachers in particular did

better after training with students who tended to score lower on the pre-tests. The "+" for Teacher 5 (Site D) under criterion 5 indicates that this teacher's effect tended to reduce the predictability of the standardized tests (an anti-Pygmalion effect). In the same site (Site D) there was a pro-Pygmalion effect for the two math teachers. In Site H there was a pro-Pygmalion effect for the reading teachers.

Examining the "Across Criteria" columns of Figure 8.2, we see the following results: individual teachers in Site D had two negative marks--Teacher 2's effect with respect to math computations and Teacher 6's effect with respect to language. There were five positive marks for individual teachers in Site D--two for Teacher 3 (reading comprehension and reading vocabulary), two for Teacher 5 (language usage and language mechanics), and one for Teacher 4 (language). As a group, the reading teachers in Site D had a positive effect with respect to language mechanics.

As a group, the reading teachers in Site H had a negative effect with respect to work knowledge.

Individual teachers in Site L had one negative mark--Teacher 6's effect with respect to total reading. There were two positive marks for individual teachers in Site L--one for Teacher 3 (word knowledge) and one for Teacher 5 (total reading). As a group, the reading teachers in Site L had a positive effect with respect to word knowledge. In Site M there were no significant differences.

Examining the "Overall Evaluation" column of Figure 8.2, we see the following results: there are three positive individual evaluations (Teacher 5 in Site D, Teacher 1 in Site H, and Teacher 5 in Site L) and two negative individual evaluations (Teacher 6 in Site H and Teacher 7 in Site L). The site with the most data, Site D, has a positive overall evaluation for the group of reading teachers.

We should point out here that where we have the most data (the six reading measures--spelling, language usage, language mechanics, reading comprehension, reading vocabulary, and language--for Site D) of the 19 cells for which we have enough data to determine statistical significance, there are five cells with positive significance and only one cell with negative significance.

In general this study indicates that if we are examining sites for which the inservice training is most likely to have been the predominant element of change and we have sufficient data of high quality, it is possible to detect the effect of the inservice training of teachers upon their students' achievement scores. Unfortunately, a general statement about this effect with respect to the entire national Urban/Rural project cannot be made, because sufficient data of high quality were available for only one site (Site D). It can be said, however, that the effect with respect to the reading teachers for that site was positive.

CHAPTER NINE

. . . . The more involved community members and teachers had the most positive feelings about continuing the shared governance model . . . . involvement breeds satisfaction and the desire for further involvement . . .

CHAPTER NINE

SIX CASE STUDIES: THE CONFIGURATIONS OF DEMOCRATIC PROCESS*

Lorenzo B. Reid

As the Urban/Rural School Development Program neared its final days, six years after it had begun, case studies of individual programs were initiated by the LTI at six of the sites (three urban and three rural programs). Some 60 participants, representing a variety of Urban/Rural role groups, agreed to be interviewed by four investigators about their experiences with the program.

The case studies were designed to probe the contribution of the structural and functional parity processes on school-community councils to Urban/Rural productivity. Responses to the interviews, observations by the investigators, and archival data make up the findings in this chapter.

LOCAL EDUCATION AGENCIES

It was reported that even as the program was being considered at the sites, some local education agency (LEA) officials had misgivings about the advisability of applying for Urban/Rural funds. The nation was in the throes of widespread discontent and protests about a host of issues. In public education things were not going well at all, and in many school districts the public clamored for community control of their schools.

Urban/Rural guidelines mandated that at least half of the policy makers for the program (school-community councils) would be made up of community members. From a community point of view, this mandate seemed to offer some relief from unilateral LEA policy making (and give the community at least 50 percent of its demands).

Given the mood of many large cities at that time, it is not difficult to understand the unsettling effect this proposition had on school authorities. Yet it did offer a new source of inservice funds and also held the promise of a respite from the "radical" insistence upon community control.

Even in smaller rural districts where the citizenry was not so vocally obstreperous, the Urban/Rural program was a fairly big step into the unknown. While it was true that these large amounts of federal monies for "training of school personnel" might well have impact on entire districts (two or three schools), the outcome would be (a) only partially within the administration's control and (b) highly visible if things went poorly (or well).

Whatever trepidations may have existed, superintendents found ways to allay them, as they placed their signatures on grant proposals and accepted Urban/Rural funds from the U.S. Office of Education.** If there was

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* This chapter is based on the summary of the larger technical report: Lorenzo Reid. "Case Studies of the Urban/Rural School Development Program."

** These funds were placed in the local district's budget, from which monies could be disbursed for SCC purposes.

ambivalence in so committing themselves, they were all destined to become converts. All case study superintendents reported their Urban/Rural programs as successes and several were explicit about areas of contribution.

TEAM MANAGERS

Once funded, SCCs were to hire as their executive officer a team manager who was to be (a) approved for hiring by the LEA, (b) paid through the LEA payroll office, (c) an employee of the LEA, detailed to the SCC, and (d) the primary and chief staff person for the SCC.* These stipulations rather clearly indicated that team manager loyalty would have to be divided between the LEA and SCC. The implied split in supervision of team managers may have been a nemesis for some of the sites and seemingly a risk for all programs. Respondents did not comment directly on this point. The fact that the dual loyalty required of team managers placed them in the precarious position of being coopted by either the LEA or the SCC may have accounted for the high team manager attrition rate. One program had four team managers, another five, and only two of the six sites retained the original team manager throughout.

Perhaps as a dubious reward for serving as the delegate for both groups, the team manager's potential influence on SCC decisions was probably as great as or greater than that of the voting members. Structured as it was, this position surely had the likelihood of making severe demands on the team manager's integrity, credibility, and tolerance for ambiguity. In spite of these burdensome requirements, team managers were greatly esteemed by their council members, and most of them looked forward to promotions within their school systems at the termination of the Urban/Rural programs.

URBAN/RURAL STAFFING VARIATIONS AND FACILITIES

Dramatic differences were evident in the range of Urban/Rural facilities, staffing patterns, and equipment. More often than not, the Urban/Rural program was headquartered in a school building where modest offices were available for the team manager and secretary. Meeting rooms, workrooms, and a variety of reproduction and audiovisual equipment were made available to the Urban/Rural program by the school system as needed. In most instances, Urban/Rural budgets could be used to supplement when additional or unique equipment was required.

Then there were programs whose innovations required increases in the Urban/Rural staff (such as computer specialists and full-time program evaluators). Also, some of these programs utilized Urban/Rural funds for more esoteric and somewhat exotic equipment and services (for example, surveying equipment, mini-grants to teachers, operation of a radio station, computer terminals and monitors).

One program operated out of a building used exclusively for Urban/Rural, had seven or eight staff persons, and hired community persons as

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* The "team manager" title was derived from a principal function these persons were to perform in relating to a cadre of teachers in the Urban/Rural schools (School Development Team).

outreach workers. The building, in addition to housing Urban/Rural offices, served as a center at which Urban/Rural and non-Urban/Rural teachers and community members could meet, hold workshops, and use its several resource rooms. At this site, the program respondents and the investigator concurred that the arrangement had a homogenizing effect on teachers and community members far greater than did the leaner programs in other sites. The investigators saw the differences in the expansiveness of programs among sites as a function of (a) the team manager's administrative style, (b) the esteem in which the program was held by the LEA, and (c) the flexibility of the LEA's resources.

SCHOOL-COMMUNITY COUNCIL CHAIRPERSONS

As SCCs were formed, two immediate tasks were to elect a chairperson and to develop bylaws which would determine that official's term of office. Considerble autonomy had been mandated to two potentially disparate subgroups (school professionals and community members) in the form of a policy making council over which the chairperson would preside. This, and the fact that they had been handed some of the board of education's decision making power, meant that SCCs were probably formidable groups to chair, especially for those with limited or no previous experience.

On investigation, there was no evidence in two of the urban sites that the chairpersons were recognized by their councils, much less the LEA, as the program's highest ranking official. From their manner and interaction it appeared that these chairpersons had abdicated the top leadership role in deference to assertive team managers (whom the LEAs treated as if they, in fact, were the senior Urban/Rural authority). Some of the respondents at these sites confirmed the accuracy of these observations, leading the investigator to conclude that SCCs tended to accept leadership from whichever of these figures actually provided it, irrespective of title.

To whatever degree this transfer of leadership occurred, with its attendant consequence of blurring the functions of policy making and administration, it elevated team managers to positions of immense power in their programs and in their educational communities. There was also no evidence of resistance to this redistribution of authority on the part of these particular SCCs.

TEACHERS

Although one respondent believed that disproportionate berefits accrued to Urban/Rural teachers, another took exception to their emphasis on cultural heritage over academics, and community members at a rural site were said to be severely critical of teachers early on, respondents' comments indicated teachers to be the role group more unquestionably accepted than any other. Teacher training was clearly the fundamental Urban/Rural business at the six sites studied, and this generally appeared to be consistent with participant expectations.

It should be noted that many of the respondents voicing this view as the programs were winding down may not have had early Urban/Rural experience with which to compare their perception. At two sites where respondents had been involved with the program since its inception, comments indicated that early expectations were not so uniform and clear. One

community was said to have had the expectation that the Urban/Rural program would have a broader community-betterment focus such as "Urban Renewal." Another site began its program with "extremely vocal and contentious community people," who used the SCC as a forum for criticizing teachers.

Teacher motivation for taking part in Urban/Rural was often questioned by teachers themselves and occasionally by community members. A spectrum of reasons for participation was covered by respondent comments, which ranged from self-interest in acquiring credentials and avoiding classroom teaching to dedication to students and improving their contribution to their school communities. While some identified personal gain as a causal factor in teacher participation at half of the study sites, this was not the numerically predominant view even at those sites. Whatever hidden or misunderstood teacher agenda materialized, all of the study sites built their Urban/Rural programs solidly around their teachers, through inservice training.

SCC STRUCTURES

A basic difference emerged in the study regarding the composition (and subsequent functioning) of the six councils. The membership of all councils included two basic subgroups--school personnel and community persons. This dichotomy in the makeup of councils was mandatory, and in every case these two groups were included on councils in the specified numerical proportions. However, school staff and community persons on some councils were noticeably similar to each other along socioeconomic lines. Other councils exhibited no such similarities between these two subgroups. For ease of discussion, the more heterogeneous council memberships were arbitrarily labeled "Alpha." The councils where the two subgroups (school professionals and community members) were found to be homogeneous were designated "Beta."

In Alpha councils, teachers and community members (a) had not necessarily known each other prior to SCC membership, (b) were from different socioeconomic spheres, and (c) respectively represented the franchised and disenfranchised, a difference clearly evident in speech patterns, dress, and degree of self-assuredness. On this basis, one rural and the three urban sites were identified as conforming to the Alpha model.

In Beta councils, the two subgroups (a) were said to have "known each other for years" prior to SCC membership and to have "known each other in contexts that transcend the SCC," or (b) were "well-to-do" and "socially influential." Both sites which conformed to the Beta model were rural.

Including as they did equal proportions of school and nonschool persons, Alpha and Beta councils were both inarguably pluralistic in composition and, as far as that goes, comparable. The study, however, describes significant and consistent differences in Alpha and Beta in the kinds of persons who made up the nonschool or community segment of their councils. For whatever reasons, Beta sites seem to have selected council members from among their more prominent citizens, known to them through previous activity in the affairs of their communities. Alpha sites chose to draw from a pool of persons previously inactive, unknown, at the lower end of the economic ladder. The study elicited no responses that identified this phenomenon, much less explained it, most likely because no given site would have reason even to contemplate it.

Urbanism and ruralism, together with some of the demographic data, provide some insights into the Alpha/Beta differences.* Alpha school districts were composed of predominant White populations (70-80 percent) while their Urban/Rural schools had extremely high minority enrollments (50-98 percent). The urban site schools were usually located in areas with equally high minority populations. When urban site planners went looking for "community" people as SCC candidates, it was in the congested neighborhoods surrounding the schools where the minorities and poor were concentrated. It should also be remembered that these were some of the disenfranchised and disgruntled who on occasion demonstrated their outrage with the performance of the schools. For the Urban/Rural planners at urban sites, this was literally where the action was.

Although the rural Alpha site certainly was not in a high density neighborhood surrounded by a large minority population (the neighborhood had a minority population of 30 percent), it appears as though its high minority school enrollment (50 percent) was the weathervane characteristic which may have moved it in the direction of Alpha in selecting community members for its SCC. That is, the extremely high (for rural sites in the Urban/Rural program) minority school enrollment may well have been seen as the most significant factor in recruitment for SCC community membership.

Turning to the two Beta sites, the racial majority accounted for 83 percent and 99.9 percent respectively of the district populations, and roughly the same percentages held for school enrollment. Beta site schools were not located in communities of neighborhoods which were distinguishably poor in contrast to any other area, and no large masses of alienated minorities dwelled in the communities surrounding the schools. Thus, when Beta planners went in search of their "community" people, it possibly seemed natural and reasonable to select from the mainstreamers who were active in civic matters and participants in their township's improvement. For the Urban/Rural planners at these sites it was perhaps less risky politically to do business as usual with the "community people" who had influence, rather than suddenly to introduce obscure and passive elements of the society into the decision-making process.

SCC INTERACTION

Functional parity on councils proved to be an elusive process to document. Taking the two Beta sites first, the problem was conceptual. Theoretically, a parity relationship between a council's professionals and its community members would be desirable, on the presumption that each group could contribute to the program their unique interests, insights, information, and occasional biases. Although school staff and community people would have student benefit in common, there would still be important differences between them; and it was through their interactions on those differences that hybrid improvements were to come.

Beta respondents could, and did, assert that without a doubt, functional parity existed on their councils. But in the absence of a cultural and socioeconomic gap between the two principal factions on the councils, their assurances could do little more than confound the parity issue. The

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* It should again be noted that of the six sites, Alpha represents one rural and three urban sites and Beta represents two rural sites.

homogeneity of Beta council memberships did not appear to have significantly redistributed the power relationship between LEAs and communities. It is difficult to see how the character of these councils would differ markedly from their boards of education, as a membership of peers.

Some Alpha community members and a few teachers recognized that early in their SCC's history, community members were reticent in their interactions with professionals or even among themselves at council meetings. All remembered this to be short-lived and no more than would be expected in a mixed group of educators and inexperienced, less assured neighborhood people. A few other community members perceived this as a more prolonged feeling of intimidation.

Interestingly, most of the SCC memberships did not perceive either dominance nor recessiveness as characterizing the behavior of staff or community at meetings. There was, however, strong evidence in the case study materials and interviews that the professionals were benignly myopic in their perceptions of parity and that community persons were cautious in seeking it.

Sufficient numbers of responses, such as "The community painted him as pro-staff and not as supportive of the community,""The community labeled her as coopted by the school," or "I've got to respect the board of education," all made by SCC community members, indicate what they perceived the dangers of outspokenness to be. Not one school staff person in any of the Alpha sites indicated in the interviews that he or she perceived community members to be sensitive to this feeling.

In addition to these factors, the study identified three others which tended to inhibit functional parity:

1. Some teachers said they had more confidence in the Urban/Rural staff than in the SCC proceedings and therefore sometimes did not get involved (perhaps the aforementioned strong role of team managers had some bearing here).

2. A few community persons confessed timidity about even speaking up at SCC meetings, much less entering controversies with the staff. (Paying stipends or hiring SCC members to the Urban/Rural staff may have engendered feelings of subordinancy among community members.)

3. Some community members, although anecdotally describing it, did not recognize their own limited participation at meetings. Some seemed blinded by their obvious pleasure and enthusiasm at merely being included; and, in spite of their ages, practically all of the community members at urban sites expressed a lingering and child-like respect for teachers (which presumably began when these adults were students).

Participants generally said that functional parity existed on Alpha SCCs, although a good number of the responses indicated it to be rather guarded. But, as respondents described no overt barriers put up by a dominant faction, the degree to which parity may have fallen short of the ideal must be credited to a self-imposed limitation on the part of individuals.

In summary, then, at Alpha sites: (a) councils generally saw themselves as interacting appropriately, (b) professionals misperceived how

unsettling participation was for community members, and (c) community members reported much uncertainty and difference of opinion about the quality of their own participation. Beta councils: (a) saw themselves as equitably representing school professionals and the community, (b) believed that their interaction was appropriate, and (c) did not engage the poor and disenfranchised in attempting to improve their schools.

PRODUCTIVITY

The Urban/Rural School Development Program was an enduring school improvement training program, which offered its local designers and implementers an extended length of time to pursue their self-determined goals. Considerable latitude was provided the grant recipients for regularly reassessing needs and modifying methods of addressing them. The six case study sites presumably began with the same general goal, with SCC energy and federal financing combining on the task.

The studies indicate that it was a given site's identification of needs that made the programs different from one another. All of the site schools needed to be improved, but (a) they did not necessarily have the same problems, and (b) even if two or more sites had one or more common school problems, the diagnosis of those problems and prescription for treating them stood a good chance of varying from site to site.

Respondents' descriptions of their programs suggest that Urban/Rural participants approached how they would initially proceed in solving their problems in two distinctly different ways. Some SCCs seem to have started with the not unreasonable question, "How can we help our teachers, thereby improving our schools?" Others apparently posed the question, "How can we improve what goes on in our schools?"

Urban/Rural was thus to be a teacher education program for some sites, while for others teacher training was to be the basic ingredient of a more complex mixture. This complexity increased with the size of programs, but size was not singularly the determinant of complexity. Rural sites, with lower enrollments in their Urban/Rural schools, tended to limit their modalities for school improvement to teacher education, later adding some ancillary services. Larger, urban sites began their programs with a variegated approach to improvement directed at schools and school communities--by schools and their communities. There were, of course, programs which fell in between the differences bracketed by these programs.

Beta Sites

Starting with the smaller and less complex of the programs (rural programs, Beta 1 and Beta 2), it was said about one of them that thanks to Urban/Rural, "nearly all of the teachers in the school district now have master's degrees--a condition which does not exist in neighboring counties." Also, much comment was made about development in each of these programs of interesting service delivery mechanisms and innovations in mode of instruction. As they were both rural, and consequently isolated, travel to Urban/Rural conferences and workshops was elevated to prominence as a social, cultural, and professionally broadening experience. Because of the remote location of one site, one administrator thought Urban/Rural was a "very valuable recruitment and retention tool for teachers."

As these programs looked back at their accomplishments over the six years, what of lasting value had been attained which would survive after federal funding, in the post-Urban/Rural period? Greater numbers of higher credentialed teachers with strengthened skills and experience, broadened by travel, seemed to be the most significant product at Beta 1 and 2. Important and workable liaison had been made with specific universities to accomplish this result. It is also true that considerable insight was gained into educational delivery systems, teacher incentives, development of attractive instructional modes, public relations, and the like, and some or perhaps all of this know-how could be put to use in these communities in the future. However, it is difficult to find a statement or implication which would lead to the belief that these are accepted processes, practices, and affiliations which were institutionalized into the systems during the program, or that any of the developmental gains which came out of inservice training will outlive the Urban/Rural program.

Although not contradicting it, perhaps offsetting this fact is that a significant number of teachers are far better prepared to render service to their students as a result of their Urban/Rural experience. To some degree, communities were involved in these programs, but respondents seldom made mention of this, and descriptions of their participation were even scarcer. The few instances when it was mentioned, community members seemed to be cast in the role of passive participants; that is, information was broadcast to them, or entertainments were provided for them.

Beta programs certainly were not said to be without community programs. But, for example, Beta 1 respondents described an "upward trend in such activities in the last two (and final) years." The case studies did not convey much about the level of community participation, enthusiasm, or change to indicate other than the benevolent utility of such project components. In view of the fact that Beta's grassroots communities were at best underrepresented on the councils, the question would certainly arise as to the origin, insightfulness, and goals of their community programming. Put another way, Beta programs used Urban/Rural for the short-term enrichment of their current teachers, with little or no change in their perspectives and processes for involving those segments of the population previously left out of educational decision making.

Alpha Sites

In reviewing the Alpha (three urban and one rural) programs, the lessons learned seem to include, but not be limited to, a good deal of the Beta program's teacher education achievements.* In Alpha, the community--both as SCC members and as Urban/Rural participants in other capacities--was a more active advocate and partner to teacher education. Community members as well as teachers improved their skills and, through one Alpha community, gained entrance into the classroom as instructional aides. At another Alpha site, under supervision of the Urban/Rural staff, community persons prepared elaborate materials to provide outreach activities for the Urban/Rural schools. Through these and a variety of other schemes, the schools were opened up to their communities and, in that process, were

* The reader is referred to the upcoming URSDP monograph: A Report of Training Activities Carried on at the Sites for Teachers, School Administrators, Parents, and Community Members.

rejuvenated by the experience. The involvement of the community did not appear to be of unusual merit simply for its own sake, but rather as it augmented teacher training programs by supporting the teachers' in-school efforts. It is the difference in this dynamic interaction of teachers and community with each other and with their schools which stands out as the greatest disparity between Alpha and Beta.

In the middle range of conceptual complexity among the six programs are one urban (Alpha 1) and one rural (Alpha 4) program, each of which was aware, early in its history, of the need for "movement toward humanistic practices in the schools" as a conscious part of the teacher education program. Somehow the direct and contagious effects of this awareness began to produce "positive changes in attitudes" with regard to racial and ethnic sensitivities; respect between students, teachers, and parents; and "pride in the site schools." Although not inconsistent with their stated goals, this outcome was looked upon with some surprise by teachers and community persons (SCC and others), and was the accomplishment they mentioned most often. It was also their conviction that this climate or school environment would prevail long after the termination of the Urban/Rural program.

Alpha 1, in support of teacher education, chose to utilize the Urban/Rural program and funds to experiment with classroom management ideas and alternative teacher-student relationships--and the school administrators were not only captivated but possessive as well. It was because of these kinds of changes and improvements that the administrators forecast a continuing role for an SCC kind of structure, with Alpha 4's superintendent commenting that the SCC "makes more sense than a host of advisory committees." Alpha 1's superintendent, having been much more distrustful of the SCC setup from the beginning, was extremely pleased at having weathered what must have seemed like an impending storm and, while not diagramming a future role for the SCC, he did seem to recognize both the possibility and advantages of working with the community. It had hardly escaped these administrators that during the course of the Urban/Rural program (a) their teachers had found students more responsive as products of a more humanistic adult approach, (b) instruction had been orchestrated such that their teachers had been given the kind of attention in retraining that teachers believed made a difference in their classrooms, (c) school atmospheres had taken on hopeful colorations, and (d) through the breaking up of long-standing isolation, a mutually beneficial relationship between school personnel and their communities had come to exist.

Finally, then, there remain the two Urban/Rural case study programs which, of the six, contain the most complex dynamics between schools and communities. Alpha 2 and 3 (both urban) structured virtually all Urban/Rural program components around a core inservice teacher education program. They seem to have begun with (a) assessments of teacher education needs; (b) determinations about how training should be designed, delivered, and conducted; and (c) the realization that a unilateral attack on improving their schools through teacher improvement would be insufficient.

Perhaps because they were in large, high density areas, they were forced not only to think big, but also to take a wider view of school improvement. More site schools with higher enrollments were involved and consequently more school staff and greater expanses of community had to be contemplated. For example, seven schools were involved in Alpha 3, and its planners set up seven individual SCCs with each to elect representatives to a joint council. This and other mechanisms were designed to facilitate and maintain communications to and from schools and communities. Alpha 2 hired

community outreach workers as school-community liaison persons, and both of these urban programs provided extensive training to community members and teachers to assure the stability and fidelity of these networks of communication.

Separate, parallel organizational structures were designed for teachers and community persons; these enabled each group to sort out their unique concerns and to disseminate information. School Development Teams of about ten teachers per school were responsible for imparting to other teachers in their buildings the information, techniques, and understandings gleaned through their Urban/Rural involvement.* Alpha 2 maintained an ongoing community group which met regularly to deliberate its concerns, received technical assistance and resource persons from the Urban/Rural program, and was the feeder group for Alpha 2's SCC membership.

Larger and more stratified Urban/Rural staffings were required in these programs to work at this level of intensity with communities and schools. Program assistants, full-time evaluators, and teaching resources technicians added considerable depth to Alpha 2 and 3's ability to support their encompassing assault in improving their schools. Alpha 2's staff comprised seven program persons (four of whom were currently certified former teachers) and clerical support staff.

Though interesting, taken individually, these were not outstandingly innovative ideas, structures, and processes. Cumulatively, however, they represent significant avenues of penetration into the schools by the community; and integrative school-community mechanisms, once accomplished, were maintained. School personnel were afforded a view of the community previously not available, and community activity in and out of school was in the service of teacher support and school improvement.

In looking at long-range possibilities, this latter model of school-community interaction (Alpha 2 and 3) represented for its participants an intrinsic value which they believe worthy of permanency. Many respondents had some difficulty in differentiating between "wanting" to maintain the structures in this model and "believing" that they would be retained. There was no confusion, however, about their enthusiasm for working toward this goal.

The superintendent interviewed at one of these sites expressed interest in having an SCC developed for each of many schools in his sprawling metropolis. His state had recently mandated that all public schools maintain parent "advisory" councils; in this superintendent's opinion, better service could be expected from what he had known as "school-community councils." A school board member at this same site saw the value of retaining a school-community council because of his experience with the Urban/Rural SCC as a microcosm of schools and their communities where board members could get accurate and detailed information about the status of the larger community's views of its schools.

At the urban Alpha site, considerably before termination of the program, the council had legally incorporated itself in an effort to carry forth the structures and school improvement activities which Urban/Rural began. The degree of acceptance or support which may or may not be forthcoming from its LEA is not known.

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* It should not be inferred that the previously mentioned sites did not utilize School Development Teams, but merely that whether or not they did, the interviews elicited few if any comments on the subject.

SUMMARY

Here, then, are six Urban/Rural School Development Programs placed along a continuum of degrees of conceptual complexity in programming, all focused on school improvement, and--by most respondents' accounts--all successful. In retrospect, program participants stated their beliefs that through the prescribed means of structural and functional parity on school-community councils, activities engaged in at their sites, over approximately six years, had attained their self-determined goals. In reconstructing the goals of the six programs by reviewing their outcomes, they all hit the mark in upgrading teachers, but aimed at quite different targets for long-range school improvement.

CHAPTER TEN

DIRECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Robert N. Bush

Under the aegis of the federal government, the Leadership Training Institute at Stanford provided technical assistance to all of the Urban/Rural sites over the six-year period. We were not a part either of the federal government or of the local school community, but we worked closely with both. This has been a unique vantage point--half outside, half inside--from which to view the experience. As one who was associated in a responsible way from the very beginning until the "end," I can share some observations concerning possible future direction for education personnel development that may be of interest.

The lessons that stand out most clearly in my mind are as follows:

1. The school and community exist as a whole organism, with all parts interrelated. They are not two worlds. It is a system in which change in any one part affects all others. The education world cannot be "saved" by changing just the curriculum, or the method, or the personnel. Wherever you begin, to be effective you soon become involved in the whole scheme of things.

2. Change and innovation are not the same as improvement. There is a tendency to forget this as we work in the schools. We need to remind ourselves that there is nothing wrong with change and innovation, but they are not ends in themselves. We have an obligation to find out if things have improved. In this quest, we should not become preoccupied with proving that the particular change being attempted is better than something else (sometimes defined as summative evaluation), but rather how well the particular innovation works in terms of what it is supposed to accomplish.

3. The world consists of three kinds of educational workers: those who are curious, those who wish to do good, and those who are a blend of the two. The first two groups need each other and we all need more of the third. Professional schools and education generally would be greatly improved if we had more of the third group. It was my aim in Urban/Rural to influence the curious to do good and to stimulate the do-gooders to be curious. It is an uphill battle. Nevertheless, it remains a desirable objective.

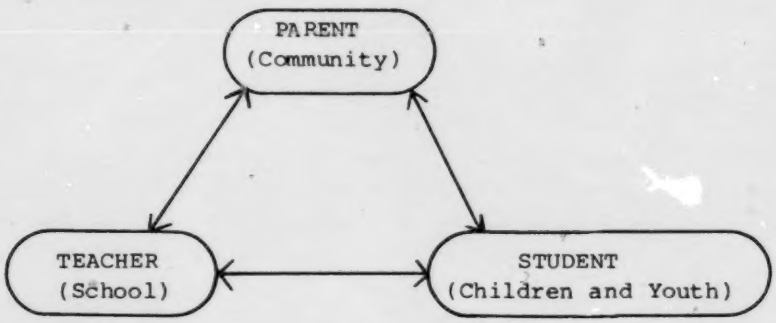
   The normal university climate favors the curious, who are indispensable and at their best illuminate the affairs of the world. At their worst, they become narrow and pedantic. In their best form, those who wish to improve matters exercise leadership, move institutions and practices significantly forward, and improve our daily lives. At their worst, they become a menace--promoting change for the sake of change, trying to hurtle us down any pathway that suits their fancy. While I have long been an advocate of the second view, my bias is toward the curious side. But my chief criticism of this group is their mode of inquiry, which often fails to recognize that the inquiry that leads to the discovery of

new knowledge in the behavioral sciences and the applied fields is often best pursued in the normal naturalistic arena in which the phenomena under inquiry exist. This was a strong feature of Urban/Rural.

4. Classrooms and schools in this country abound in effective, exciting, productive, solid, creative experiences and people. There are many places where people are learning much, teachers are teaching effectively, administrators are managing schools well, and parents and community members are participating constructively in school affairs. Much more of this positive experience exists than is typically recognized. A solid base of educational practice to build on widely prevails.

   Everything is not right. Some abysmal and shocking conditions may be found; much remains to be done. But we are not educationally bankrupt--far from it. We are in a healthy state of ferment. Enough is now going on, if it were fully recognized, shared, disseminated, and multiplied, to move us forward in the next decade significantly. We need to pay much more attention to good practice and to perfect and widely distribute it. The people have not lost faith in their schools. Schools are not mainly places of failure as some allege. But we must not let up on our efforts to invent new and better ways.

5. The heart of school improvement lies in a three-fold relationship.



We are beginning to learn that the older concept--where the school stood at the center of the world, the parent brought the child to school and then vanished to be neither seen nor heard from again, and the child was left to do what he/she was told--is no longer valid. Each of these elements needs to work in harmony with the others. We need to negotiate what the school can do, what the parents want, and what pupils see as relevant. Agreements need to be reached, and constantly modified and fine tuned. We have made

a beginning in the school-community councils of the Urban/Rural program. But we have not gone very far. This radical new concept will take time to work out.

Society gives the school contradictory tasks: first, to make all children somewhat alike--to enculturate them, to make them into good little Americans, and to be impartial and evenhanded with every one. This is the reason for compulsory schooling. But the school is also to treat each one uniquely so that his/her particular talents are fully developed. It is often difficult to meet both the individual and the social claims. In struggling with these problems in Urban/Rural we have begun to recognize how easy it is for one group to stereotype another:

Teachers → Administration and Parents
Parents → Schools
Administration → Teachers and Parents
Students → Teachers

And we have come to learn that it helps to try to understand different roles, but that when we stereotype each other it almost always gets in the way.

6. <u>The urban and rural areas are two of the most fascinating and urgent parts of contemporary culture--not just in the United States but abroad as well</u>.

These are the moving, dynamic, and creative places, where problems abound, and where people are on the move--where new, unorthodox, more forceful solutions are being forged. In the vernacular of the times, "This is where the action is."

7. <u>A new design for inservice education is emerging, more powerful than anything we have seen before</u>. The changing face of education development has been emerging in the Urban/Rural sites. Inservice education is developing along the following eight lines; it is:

- Merging with preservice education. The traditional gap is closing.
- Changing from something that administrators and supervisors and college professors <u>do to teachers</u>, to a shared, collaborative enterprise with all using their expertness.
- Moving away from a collection of college courses to school/college collaboration at the school site on school problems.
- Moving away from being tacked on or added to the school day to an integral place in the school day and workload.
- Moving to encompass all operating personnel--administrators, supervisors, specialists, paraprofessionals--not just teachers.
- Becoming much more highly targeted, specific, individualized, and personalized. It is not a global, one-day, one-shot affair.
- Becoming a regular "hard money" part of funding--a legitimate and necessary part of the budget.
- Moving away from the concept of once trained, always trained. Constant training is required to keep up to date.

WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT TRAINING TEACHERS*

We have just finished more than a decade of experience in relatively large scale research and development work in teaching and teacher education in the regional educational labs, in the R & D centers, in a number of private nonprofit groups, and in universities and school systems. We have also had more than a decade of extended demonstrations and testing of different models of teacher training made possible by federal funds: Training of Teacher Trainers (TTT), Career Opportunity Program (COP), Teacher Corps, the 10 elementary teacher training models, protocol materials, Performance Based Teacher Education, and--not least--Urban/Rural. In no period in our history have so many talented persons turned their attention to the improvement of teaching and teacher education. Never have there been as many new and tested teacher training materials available for widespread use. What lessons have we learned from this experience?

Lesson One

The first lesson is that teacher preparation takes time, especially from the first day of practice until a beginner can step into a classroom with confidence and competence. Our experience suggests that the two-year post-baccalaureate Teacher Corps model is superior to the one-year Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) program, and also to the four-year undergraduate model that typically allows a year or less from the time of student teaching and observation to regular classroom assignment. In recognition of the need for more time, the first few years of beginning teaching are coming to be considered as training years, during which neophytes receive a differential treatment before being granted a full license. Getting started right is important and takes time.

Lesson Two

The second lesson is that you cannot mass produce highly competent professional teachers. The product must be custom built. Five hundred student teachers per semester, large methods classes of 100, educational psychology sections of 200 students do not work. When Bill Smith announced at the beginning of the tenth cycle of the Teacher Corps, "only four trainees per project," many of us thought he was crazy. We were wrong. The small group of four teachers with a local fulltime team leader for a two-year period has proven highly effective. We might well be able to increase this number to six or eight but not beyond.

The positive consequences of this small, individually tailored training is unequivocal. On the surface, these small numbers appeared as an exorbitantly costly, and therefore impractical, scheme. But this has not been so. Not fully recognized at the time was that a whole faculty of 25, 50, or even 100 experienced teachers and administrators and an even larger number of community members would be receiving inservice education at the same time, hence the cost per participant--both pre- and inservice--was not excessive.

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* These remarks appeared in only slightly modified form in the November-December 1977 issue of the Journal of Teacher Education.

Lesson Three

Practice, practice, practice. This lesson may be one of the most important. But not just any kind of practice. For a long time, extending back before James Conant, student teaching was alleged to be the best--some claimed the only worthwhile--part of teacher training. But we have now gone far beyond.

It is not just practice, but frequent, varied, and criticized practice. Observation, immediate feedback, and practice again to perfect the original performance. Use of models. Practice in a variety of situations, with different ages and socioeconomic levels of students. Observation by a variety of observers--supervisors, peers, students--each of whom can observe from a different vantage point. Practice in teaching an individual child, a small group of five to eight, and in regular sized classes, with ample time to discuss what went on and why. Practice in observing different learning styles in pupils, and in observing and then trying out different teaching styles and strategies to match the learning styles of pupils. Time to reflect, to try different things in a "safe" atmosphere where failure and mistakes can be experienced productively. Practice not only individually but in teams where division of labor and critical peer observation and feedback take place.

In discussions with the Teacher Corps interns who have had such experiences, the clear message is the power of such practice in building competence and confidence.

Lesson Four

We have also learned that the school and the university must both participate in the training. Neither can do the job alone. Each brings a unique and essential contribution. When either part is missing, the whole is seriously flawed. Lip service has been paid to this idea for a long time, but the Teacher Corps and the Urban/Rural experiences particularly have demonstrated that this cooperation between local education agencies and institutions of higher education is not only essential but also possible. In preservice, the school has a much bigger role to play than past practice assumed. In inservice education, both the schools and the universities have different roles than in the past.

Lesson Five

Closely related to the previous lesson concerning cooperation of both school and colleges, we have almost come to understand that inservice and preservice have more in common than previously imagined, and that they are probably better accomplished when done together. Beginning in the tenth cycle of the Teacher Corps, a new model began to take shape. Beginners, experienced school teachers, and college teachers, researchers and developers, all working together in a problem solving mode in a school setting, provide an exciting environment for training.

This idea lies at the heart of the Urban/Rural model. We all learn, improve our skills and understanding, when we collaborate in making a better learning environment for students in a regular school-community setting. As preservice and inservice blend into each other a new and powerful concept, the need for a continuing lifelong program of professional development, takes life.

Furthermore, we are learning, to the surprise of some, that we do not need "model" or laboratory schools fashioned after the teaching hospital idea. The learning of beginning teachers is more realistic and lasting when it takes place in a regular school and community setting, alongside skilled and dedicated experienced school and college teachers.

Lesson Six

Another lesson, closely related to the two foregoing, is that teacher training with a missing third party--parents and community members--falls far short of the mark of excellence and responsiveness. Here Urban/Rural has clearly been in the vanguard. The past decade has witnessed considerable experimentation with new forms of school-community collaboration; this has taught us that teachers and school programs become much more responsive to the real needs of students. Training programs for experienced teachers and neophytes alike become richer, more frequent, and more effective when community members participate actively and become a part of decision making in school affairs.

The findings are now only beginning to come in. Many still feel uncomfortable with the idea. Many mistakes were made in the early trials. The process requires constant care and attention. But the old mold has been broken. School-community cooperation has proved its case and will become more prevalent. It is increasingly clear also that when schools and communities work together, when their values and priorities are consonant, education becomes more powerful. Teachers trained in an environment where school-community cooperation is present are much better prepared for the future.

Lesson Seven

We have long been in general agreement that fully professional teachers who will continue their development over a lifetime career need to be well grounded in the humanistic studies and the behavioral sciences that underlie educational practice: in history, philosophy, psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and political science. But how and when to present these theoretical underpinnings so that they "take" with trainees has been elusive.

During the past few years, in some demonstration and experimental projects, we have begun to learn how these materials can be better timed and better taught. It is clear that a standardized diet for everyone via textbook-based large lecture classes for 4-5 units of credit, taken before teaching practice has begun, is not the way. It is helpful to learn what does not work. This ineffective practice is beginning to give way to more flexible arrangements, individualized approaches, workshops, and problem-solving sessions. There is a long way to go but we know the direction, and the first steps have been taken.

Lesson Eight

There has never been doubt about teachers' need for a sound liberal or general education and a broad and deep training in the subject matter they are to teach. We also know that a college subject-matter major frequently has gaps and inappropriate emphases for the prospective teacher of that

subject. However, certification requirements and standards of accreditation are beginning to correct these problems and to require demonstrated competence in addition to completion of college courses. The mistaken idea of a teaching major and minor, that is, fully prepared to teach in one subject and half-prepared in another, is beginning to give way to the proposition that a person must be fully prepared in any subject he or she is to teach, and that the license can reflect this.

Lesson Nine

We seem recently to have been learning a lesson that, strangely, we did not learn earlier--namely, that the principle of individual differences applies to teachers and to teacher training as well as to pupils. This does not mean "anything goes," each person doing his or her own thing in his or her own way. Teacher training needs high, well-conceived common standards of competence that are rigorously adhered to. But there are many routes to the standard. All do not begin at the same place and rates of progress vary. While all teachers should have at first a minimum and later a richer repertoire of teaching strategies and skills, their teaching styles will and should differ.

Lesson Ten

Our final lesson, which we knew all along but have seldom applied, is that excellent teacher training requires money. It is not cheap. We are indebted especially to the federal government which has been willing to allocate larger sums of money than ever before to demonstrate that, with resources, you can attract and train able people to teach well. Even though detailed cost accounting has not been fully achieved in teacher education, the facts are self-evident that teacher education has always been among the cheapest of collegiate programs, both for those who want to enter and for the institutions which offer it. Strong social forces work to keep it that way. But we now have demonstrated that high quality teacher training is possible when resources are available. We need to take the lesson seriously.

The foregoing statement represents a distillation of my recent experience with Urban/Rural and other education personnel development programs. I am particularly pleased to have been a part of Urban/Rural, where I--as, I trust, so many of my colleagues--have been renewed in a process that is just beginning. The essence of Urban/Rural is continuing renewal.

CHAPTER ELEVEN

THE SOCIAL CONTEXT: A MEMORANDUM FOR THE FUTURE

Les Birdsall

The condition of our public schools has become a major concern in urban and rural communities throughout the nation. Not only does schooling occupy a fundamental place in the structure of our entire society, but the quality of each neighborhood is integrally linked to the quality of education available from the schools which serve it. The future well-being of our nation and the ability of young people to effectively pursue a productive and satisfactory life in our post-industrial society cannot be separated from the quality of our schools. And that quality depends on the strength of our neighborhood communities because, long ago, the decision was made to have a decentralized system of public education.

Students, teachers, administrators, parents, and community members all agree that there are problems within the school and that these problems are detrimental to teaching and learning. For school board members the problem may appear in the annual budget, or their inability to generate policies which directly relate to improved student performance. The superintendent, principal, and other administrators may feel the burden of grappling with bureaucratic minutiae vital to the business of keeping the system functioning but not be quite close enough to the business of educating children. Teachers feel overwhelmed by the imposition of requirements and mandates, a sense of lost control over educational content, and an absence of personal and school support systems and renewal strategies for coping with the challenges that confront them. Students feel less than adequately prepared to face the world and often unchallenged by their education. Many parents and community members share a sinking feeling that somehow the children have not been provided with an adequate opportunity to expand and grow to their fullest. To these feelings, and a myriad more, one must add the frustration and impotence felt by all.

The condition of our schools constitutes a subject of regular discussion among all of us. Individual feelings and frustrations get talked about. So do issues like violence, segregation, integration, school organization and climate, staff development, school improvement, and performance. Seldom, however, are any of these topics discussed in ways that allow us a broader view of schools, ourselves, and the challenges we must confront if we are to begin to resolve the problems that face us.

It is important that we immediately initiate a new and broader dialog. In too many places the problems cited have already taken on the characteristics of a permanent condition. We are permitting serious educational problems to become normal conditions within our schools, within the lives of the professionals to whom they are entrusted, among board of education members who bear the public guardianship and, increasingly, among students, parents, and community members. If we do not reverse this situation the buildup of frustrations may permeate the context of education. These feelings of frustration and impotence--separate from the problems which gave rise to them--can become so pervasive in the teaching environment that our ability to assure to all children the best possible quality of education will be severely diminished.

We must muster the energy and capacity to challenge these conditions. This task must be accomplished by students, teachers, administrators, parents, and community members located in a thousand different places and settings. It must be part of a problem-solving process within which we clearly understand our purposes, priorities, objectives, and commitments. We need to examine a range of critical factors, and to construct a framework or perspective from which problems can be examined.

SOURCES OF PERSPECTIVE

Education is the largest single industry in the United States. There is a school enrollment of 74 million persons and 2 1/2 million teachers and support personnel. As many people are enrolled full time in school as there are at work full time. More Americans are involved in teaching and learning than in any other pursuit.

Over the past 40 years, great advances have been made in transforming education from an elite pursuit into a universal one. In 1940 the average person in the United States had completed his/her education with the eighth grade. Today the standard is the completion of high school. Within a 50-year period the proportion of high school graduates increased from 20 percent to 75 percent. In 1940 only 15 percent of the people in this nation had attended college. As the seventies dawned we were almost at 50 percent.

As the universality of education expanded so did its quality. The current generation of students is the best educated in our history. They are more literate and more advanced in their appreciation of literature, the sciences, and the arts.

Yet we do confront a paradox. Standing alongside of these successes are the undeniable signs of failure. More than one million children dropped out of our education system last year. Millions more of those who remain in the schools are not performing at the level and range of learning of which they are capable. A large number graduate without achieving what must be considered an adequate education.

Among these students are the gifted, the handicapped and developmentally disabled, the non-English speaking and those limited in English. Many of the underachievers and dropouts come from poor families; racial and ethnic "minority" students are disproportionately represented also. There is a direct correlation between family education and a child's success in school: only 57 percent of the children whose fathers did not graduate from high school will complete high school themselves, and only 8 percent will complete college. For children of fathers who have graduated from college the corresponding figures are 96 and 78 percent respectively. Predictions of future income are similar.

We must directly face the fact that many of our schools, school staffs, and family and community learning centers are not adequately involved or prepared for the special learning needs of lower income students, racial and ethnic minority students, and students who are handicapped, developmentally disabled, or gifted. School programs, instructional strategies, and materials need to be organized more effectively to respond to these populations.

Fifty years ago students and schools were fairly homogeneous. Those students not going on to college tended to leave school early. As more and

more students stayed in school for longer periods of time, the individual differences between students (their backgrounds, life experiences, learning styles, and aspirations) increased drastically. Despite great advances in curricula, learning theory, and teaching strategies, however, schools are still largely organized as if they were functioning in that earlier era.

Schooling is also a social process. Schools and school programs are intricately entwined with the social fabric of our communities. Not too long ago many laymen and educators regarded schools as education centers which stood alone. Parents were instructed to stand aside lest they interfere in the education of their children. Schools <u>are</u> highly specialized learning centers. The family, the community, the peers, and television are all learning centers also and play a vital and interdependent role in the ongoing process of formal and informal education. Formal education refers to institutionalized education--nursery school, kindergarten to grade twelve, higher education, and all other structured learning. Yet formal education represents only a small portion of our total educational experiences. The balance is informal. Education starts at birth and continues throughout our lives.

From birth through childhood, parents, relatives, and friends need to be responsive to the child's need for intellectual stimulation, guidance, reinforcement, and affection. In our society it is estimated that 50 percent of a child's basic intellectual foundation is established by age five--prior to the entry by most children into schools and the formal educational setting.

The most wondrous and amazing of educational achievements take place in this early, informal setting. There are in this world an almost infinite number of sounds, sights, and events. Yet children, with the assistance of their parents, friends, and relatives, manage to put together from this infinite collection an organized language--specific sounds linked to specific things. The excitement, dexterity, and speed with which children accomplish this process of learning are simply miraculous. It could not and would not occur without the interaction between child, parent, friends, relatives, and environment. They are the essential determinants; they are the educators in the family and neighborhood context.

The family is the primary informal learning center. Its nature has changed drastically in the past several decades. The extended family with its multiple roles and relationships has disappeared. In recent years there has been an increase in single-parent families and families in which both parents work. In some schools 50 percent of the children come from these arrangements. While neither situation is inherently disadvantageous they do place different demands on the student, parent, <u>and</u> the school.

Another fundamental change in the home environment is the role of television. Family-student television time is simply enormous. Television has reduced family interactions. The stimulating, guiding, reinforcing, and affectionate interacting of family members in their various roles and relationships have been given over, in part, to television. For family interactions television substitutes a single-dimension communication channel which for the viewer is quite passive. It totally lacks give and take, often offers false and counterproductive guidance and reinforcing models in a process that is impersonal. Television could be an exciting educational tool. Certainly it has exposed us to places, people, and ideas never before present in our living rooms. Despite its potential, television remains an educational wasteland and one with clearly negative side effects.

The community is another learning center. In communities where the residential living patterns of families are segregated, where great disparities between the poor and the wealthy exist, and where respect for each other's person and property has suffered, the schools are likely to feel the consequence.

The interaction of students in integrated schools, where the community is racially and economically segregated, will probably reflect patterns of racial and ethnic isolation. Schools and parents, if they are aware and sensitive, can deal with these difficulties, often very effectively, but they cannot escape them.

Our aspirations--discovering who we are and what we might become--are dependent, in a large measure, on family, friends, and the models which exist in the local real world. In neighborhoods of poverty and high unemployment it is more difficult for students to perceive that hard work in school will result in the jobs they need and want upon graduation. Most employment opportunities in blue collar neighborhoods result from an informal network of friends and relatives. When friends and relatives do not have jobs, there is a much greater possibility that you will not have a job.

Schools cannot escape the realities of society. The process of formal education is interdependent with that of informal education. The primary determinants of success are environment--the school, the home, and the community; and expectations--of self, of teachers, peers, parents, and other adults.

To explore the process of informal education is not to diminish the importance of formal education. Schools can be marvelous, exciting places. They should be oases of discovery, growth, and accomplishment. Every school should be capable of permitting all children, regardless of where they are on the learning spectrum, to develop and expand to all they are capable of becoming. Schools should be places that nurture the soul and the mind. They can be places for all sorts of discovery. Discovery of new languages, of history, of philosophy, of literature, of the arts, and of science. As children proceed to discover themselves and the world around them in the school, they do it in such a way that they also obtain the basic tools of learning which are indispensable to a satisfactory, productive life. Schools have been especially established for this purpose. They are the only learning center specially prepared for this task.

What schools are not is a substitute for the informal educational environment of parents, family, home, and the community. To the extent that educators, as leaders, do not dispel the notion of schools as a substitute for that environment, they do a serious injustice to the profession, the school, the home, and the community.

Schools are confronted by a complex condition, by the paradox of both success and failure, and by a new set of circumstances and conditions all of which are not yet well understood. Some would respond to what is a very complex set of dynamics with myths and simplistic solutions. There are those who would insist on making the existing system more rigid. But the system cannot be protected if it is not capable of responding. Others would argue for what they consider to be the traditional values and basic orientations of yesteryear's education system. They think education has become too progressive. And they possess a slightly distorted view of the quality of education available a hundred years ago. Consider: in 1870 the President of Harvard College recommended that written examinations be substituted for the then customary oral examinations. The Dean of the Medical

School responded, "Written examinations are impossible in the Medical School. A majority of students cannot write well enough."

I would suggest to you that the 3 Rs have never been abandoned. The incredible ongoing search for better teaching methods, better curriculum materials, and improved learning climates represents an integral and essential part of the effort to bring the rudimentary three Rs of yesterday to a modern and mass population of today.

We need to bridge the gap between informal and formal education. You do that by bridging the gaps between the parent and the professional and between the community and the school.

We need to build within our schools processes that permit principals, teachers, and other school staff to continuously renew their instructional strategies, their curricula, and their materials. What needs to be accomplished here is the development of a system which will allow our school staffs to have access to the very best that research and experience have demonstrated to be of use in teaching and learning.

These two tasks--the development of a partnership between parents and teachers, the school and home; and the establishment of a process for continuous school and staff renewal--are the challenges we must confront if we are to improve our schools and assure that every child is offered the oprortunity for equal educational achievement.

These tasks are inseparable. Were we to develop the optimum in teaching strategies, curriculum, and other areas of educational technology we would find them severely limited in effectiveness because we have not yet bridged the gap between the informal and formal educational processes; between the pupil, parent, and teacher; and between the home and classroom. Likewise we could construct a partnership between the community and school with little consequence if we fail to develop within the school site an ongoing continuous process for school improvement.

Can schools successfully respond to these challenges? The history of isolating improvement efforts, the failures in institutionalizing successes, and the success in turning promising practices into meaningless "business as usual" approaches certainly leave ample room for doubt.

The National Urban/Rural School Development Program has demonstrated the possibilities. It demonstrated that school-community councils composed of parents, teachers, administrators, community members, and others can be established and maintained with equal, meaningful participation and shared decision making. It further demonstrated that the product of such participation can be locally determined school improvement and staff development programs of high quality.

Successful schools are much less a product of a particular educational technology and much more a consequence of the joint capabilities and cooperative processes developed within the school and community. Let us examine the characteristics which appear to surround these capabilities and processes in successful schools.

School improvement programs require the involvement of the entire school community. At the school site that means parents and community members, teachers and support staff, and the administration. That is the only way we can bridge the gap between the school and the community and between the family and the classroom. We must begin to build effective partnerships. What that means is meaningful participation involving substantive educational issues in real program-building activity. Whether school-community councils prove effective or not will be determined by

their purpose and sincerity. If the council was established with a genuine commitment to creating a problem-solving group intent on developing values, goals, and activities central to the educational priorities affecting the school and its participants, then its ultimate success will be immeasurably advanced. If it is merely a showpiece it is doomed to failure regardless of the quality or good intentions of its participants.

The organizational climate of the school is another critical part of the success of school-community councils, joint decision making, and school site improvement programs. It must nurture and foster collaboration, cooperation, and problem solving. Climate includes how the principal, the teachers, the students, and the community feel about themselves, the school, each other, and what they are doing. It is the development of a feeling, a presence, and a unity among and between the staff, students, and community. This requires mutual respect and an understanding for and encouragement of different perspectives and roles.

Climate and collaboration must be linked to a problem-solving process that is responsive to local needs and underpinned by a strong commitment to address those needs. To be real and amenable to cooperative efforts, those needs must be felt and understood by both community and staff. Successful school improvement programs require a critical mass, that is, a large nucleus of participants--community and staff--committed to improvement.

If change is to be successfully undertaken then it must be planned for and all the key participants must be involved in the planning. Regular and continuous planning is necessary, while both too little and too much are harmful. Good planning is made up of many of the qualities already mentioned: joint problem solving, good channels of communication, clear identification of issues, adaptation to local needs, flexibility, the open involvement of all participants, and the direct development of solutions. This final point bears repeating. The whole purpose of collaboration, problem solving, and planning is the development of new capabilities and programs in the school. If that is not the actual outcome then the entire process is without value and purpose.

The organizational capacity to successfully implement school improvement activities and programs varies from institution to institution, from site to site, and over time even within sites. That is why collaboration is so important. It is a building process. That is why solutions and program activities must be designed and adapted to fit a particular organizational setting of community, school, and classroom. No two such settings are the same, no two groups of participants are the same.

Successful school improvement programs are largely dependent on effective school site staff development programs. Collaborative problem solving, identifying different learning styles and appropriate teaching methods, developing curricula and materials, and designing training programs to increase the school staff's repertoire of instructional strategies are all staff development activities.

This type of staff development requires continuous staff involvement in the day to day implementation; frequent and regular staff meetings as a base for cooperation and mutual sharing; the development of materials (the greatest value of materials development is the resulting knowledge of the program and ownership of it); and, finally, the concentration on practical classroom needs, the everyday how-to-do-its. The staff development and school improvement program must have clear objectives that are enough to address complex problems. They also should include opportunities for early

successes and an open process with a variety of entry points for participation.

This process of staff development is intricately linked to school and classroom organization, which cannot but be affected. Success in addressing these matters requires high teacher morale, leadership from the principal, and the support of the school superintendent and school administration. This must be a team and system effort.

Innovation, school improvement, and collaboration by their nature are time-consuming processes. They require patience, persistence, commitment, care, and sensitivity. This is not a task that can be accomplished in a day, a week, a month, or a year; but it is a task that over time can result in substantial school improvement.

There is no magic to these words. We cannot package this product in a pretty box and distribute it to every school building. We are talking about a developmental approach that will be different in every school. We are talking about a cooperative venture between professionals and the community that will have its own unique set of characteristics. And we are talking about a problem-solving process that is supported, but not determined, by the best that research, experience, and technology can offer.

CHAPTER TWELVE

URBAN/RURAL: "UNIQUE," "TIMELY," "SEMINAL" AN ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT ON CURRENT LEGISLATION

W. Thomas Carter

As with most professionals who have experienced the satisfaction of seeing themselves in print, I was pleased to receive the invitation from Bruce Joyce and Bob Bush to contribute to this rather special report. I harbor no illusions about the originality of what will follow in this piece; its justification, rather, will be the special perspective from which it is written and possibly the emergence of some "relatedness" facts or viewpoints that may be of interest to the readers.

The Urban/Rural School Development (URSD) Program was one of the two dozen or more training programs operated under authority of the Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) between 1968 and 1976. The program was unique in concept and design, fortunate in its timing, and seminal in its impact on federal staff development legislation. These judgments are derived from a decade of intimate and responsible involvement in the EPDA enterprise as program manager and supervisor and as close observer in the U.S. Office of Education of other legislative and administrative efforts in the area of staff development. Accuracy of recall, the degree of objectivity, and the level of reliability in what follows will probably reflect the relative strengths and limitations of the program manager's perspective in retrospect.

I remember, for example, sitting in on several of the program planning sessions called to think through the mandate Don Davies had given the small planning committee. Some of my observer participation was planned or formally requested, some was not. The Bureau of Educational Personnel Development conference room was directly across the hall from my office, and the door was almost always open, thus facilitating for me the casual "drop-in, sit-down" role I assumed. The committee chairman John Lindia and I, through having shared an office earlier and other common interests, had cultivated a friendship that obviated the need to be invited in or to ask if I might observe.

There was, I recall about those early sessions, intensity and enthusiasm; some differences of opinion, with respect not only to the charge but also to its practicality; and, inevitably, some confusion. What was being proposed was an inservice training program in which the personnel of a school, primarily its teachers, would determine, in parity consultation with community representatives, their priority training needs. A unique conceptualization? Had not professors in teacher training institutions traditionally determined courses, credit, and curricula? Had not state and local education agency administrators traditionally determined what courses and credits teachers needed for certification, recertification, and salary increments? What about community people effectively participating in the development of school policy? What do they know? Even more important, school boards would be asked to delegate in good faith (or at least to appear to) spending authority to an entity called a school-community council. But isn't that illegal? Did not the community control efforts of the

late sixties demonstrate the difficulties if not the futility of such direct sharing of statutory authority?

Amidst the spirited discussions and expressions on these issues a clarification of the charge emerged. More important, there emerged a sincere consensus not just in the planning committee, but among most of the Bureau personnel, that the URSD concept was not only feasible but excitingly promising.

The design described and referred to throughout this report finally emerged and embodied all of the controversial features raised in those questions in the planning committee sessions. Launching the program was not easy. There were superintendents and boards that elected not to participate, finding the lure of a supplemental staff development resource less attractive than the risk of insubordination, internal conflict, and potential turmoil. Others accepted the program provisionally but with reservations about the workability of that "good faith delegation of authority" notion. In a few of the projects conflicts did arise, especially at sites in which personnel changes brought different perceptions and interpretations of the program design and grant terms. On balance, however, the program not only survived but succeeded; its legacy will test the soundness of the concept.

The climate of opinion nationally with respect to federal interventions into social problems must be viewed as having some influence on the planning and subsequent launching of the Urban/Rural program. The War on Poverty with its varied community action programs had experienced equally varied kinds and degrees of success and failure. Predictably, the liberal view was for expansion and extension of all such efforts, even where waste and ineffectiveness were in evidence. Liberals argued that the disadvantaged, as a result of their historical exclusion from decision-making civic roles, needed and deserved the opportunity to make honest management mistakes. Management is a profession, they said; it must be studied and learned. As expected, the conservatives were opposed; their position was that management and especially the decisioning on policy matters were properly the responsibility of trained and experienced persons, and that the delegation of these serious decisions on the use of precious resources to ad hoc people's representatives was an abdication of civic responsibility and possibly even socialistic. Others, conservatives and moderates alike--perhaps more morally sensitive to the ills of disadvantagement--had not opposed earlier federal interventions, but felt that the government had gone far enough. They reflected the collectivity of opinion out of which Moynihan's "benign neglect" thesis emerged; indeed, there were many Americans of varied political persuasions who applauded the "insight" of the bold and loquacious Irishman.

This was the social climate in which the Urban/Rural program was born and to which was due much of its travail in the early years--and probably, too, its subsequent survival and successes. The factor of timing or moment must, therefore, be viewed as determinant in any real understanding of the Urban/Rural program.

With respect to the "relatedness" factors previously referred to, we have in mind those program features which, while not conceptually original with Urban/Rural, had not been previously tested in any federally-sponsored programs. Since so little is really new in education, any assertion about "firstness" in the field, and more particularly in training, must always be made contingent upon later findings or determinations. With this protective caveat around us, we are prepared to suggest three features which were

critically tested in Urban/Rural and which, by their subsequent inclusion in other major legislation, provide the basis for the relatedness or seminal attribute ascribed earlier to the program. To trace the effective influence of one federal program on another would require more time and resources than are warranted for this effort. What can be asserted with some certainty is that legislators do not normally re-legislate failures, nor do administrators re-propose programs or program designs that have failed. In this context, success is self-perpetuating, and we are suggesting that there were federal innovations in the Urban/Rural program which not only worked but which also demonstrated the potential effectiveness that decision makers usually require for replication and reenactment.

The design features in the Urban/Rural program which, in our view, have a legislative lineage are:

1. The school-community council to which program spending authority was delegated by the local education agency

2. The placing in the hands of classroom teachers of the primary responsibility and authority to determine their priorities for inservice training needs and those activities best suited to meet those needs

3. Parity (a notion also tested in other EPDA programs), by which decisions are made in the management of a project through a mutually collaborative process of all parties concerned.

The school-community councils, conceptually related to the decentralized boards launched in New York's and other local agencies' efforts at community control, sought to bring parents and other community representatives into the decision-making process of their schools. Considered radical and dangerous by some in the social turmoil of the late sixties and early seventies, the idea was the cornerstone of the Urban/Rural design. In the Education Amendments of 1972 the local advisory committee became a statutory program requirement for the following programs:

Title IX, HEA, Ethnic Heritage Program--Applications must give evidence that the program "has been planned and will be carried out in consultation with an advisory council which is representative of the ethnic group or groups with which the program is concerned. . . ."

Indian Education Act--To be eligible for a grant or contract, a local education agency must establish a . . . project committee ". . . broadly representative of parents, . . . not less than half of the members of which shall be members of the minority group the educational needs of which the . . . project is intended to meet."

The Education Amendments of 1974 added by regulation this program:

Title VII, Bilingual Education--Applications must "be developed in consultation with parents. . . ."

And finally in the Education Amendments of 1976 the Teacher Corps program was given a statutorily required community voice:

Title V, HEA as amended, The Teacher Corps--no [project] arrangement may be entered into . . . unless that arrangement is prepared with the participation of an elected council which shall be representative of the community. . . ."

"Each council . . . shall participate with the local educational agency or institution of higher education or both, in the planning, carrying out, and evaluation of projects. . . ."

From a program manager's perspective, relatedness, if not cause and effect relationships, easily emerges from this history. Educational innovations that respond to social and political pressures and, in addition, demonstrate effectiveness are likely to be continued, extended, and--where practicable--transferred to other programs. The federal legacy of Urban/Rural with respect to community input into school governance is, in our view, at least a reasonable hypothesis.

The notion of teachers rather than university professors or administrators determining their own training and curriculum needs, the second of the design pillars of Urban/Rural, is the very essence of the new Teacher Centers Program (Sec. 532, PL 94-482, Education Amendments of 1976). The statute requires that each project have a teacher center policy board, the majority of which must be elementary and secondary school teachers. This board will determine priority curricular and training needs. This requirement is a close replication of the Urban/Rural school-community council whose non-teacher members parallel the non-majority members of the teacher center policy boards. Here again the lineage is much too direct to accommodate a mere chance relationship. The Urban/Rural program demonstrated the workability of the notion, and teachers nationwide carried the message enthusiastically to Congress. It is reasonable to assume that within and outside the profession the Urban/Rural "lesson" had been learned. It is unlikely that any new staff legislation will be enacted in the near future that does not provide for the effective voice of the classroom teacher in program or project governance.

Parity, the third and last of the Urban/Rural seminal features, is now required by statute in both the Teacher Centers legislation and the Teacher Corps amendments. The policy board previously referred to is required by statute to have on it teachers (the majority), including vocational education and special education representatives; higher education representation; and local education agency representation, non-public school representatives, and the recommendation of the state education agency. The statute does not specifically require a community voice, but it may be assumed that among the non-majority members of the policy boards will surely be found effective community voices.

As for the Teacher Corps, a community advisory council is now a statutorily required part of each project. The Teacher Corps design has traditionally included in project governance teachers, students, and local education agency and higher education agency representation; to these components are now added a state education agency sign-off and a community advisory council.

Underlying the legislative replication of these features of Urban/Rural is the fact of demonstrated effectiveness and practicality, both rather compelling criteria in the assessment of any program of federal financial assistance. The rationale supporting the three seminal features described is clearly the soundness of involving the people who are most concerned in

the governance of their projects. It is a tribute to Don Davies and his talented and creative staff that their program conceptualizations and projections anticipatd so well the staff development needs and the climate of the federal decision makers in these matters. My earlier statement bears reiteration: the Urban/Rural program was unique in conceptualization and design, fortunate in its timing, and seminal in its impact on federal staff development legislation.